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The Personnel Man and the Merit System

WHATEVER else is expected of public personnel administration, it is expected to preserve and advance the idea of employment based on merit. Sadly, it must be recorded that there are still many opportunities to protect the merit system from attackers at all levels of government. In fighting efforts to restore spoils practices, public personnel people must continually seek for new methods of offense as well as defense. They must not succumb to the "Magenot Line" psychology which relied on a single, fixed method of defense and was helpless against "round the end" attack. Government is growing and its needs are constantly changing. Preservation—and advancement—of the merit principle depends on a practical program of action designed to meet the peculiar needs of the particular government involved.

Here are some of the important ways in which the personnel man can lend his support to the fight for efficient, fair government personnel administration.

1. Take every opportunity to publicize the merit system and its advantages in order to gain citizen support.
 - a. Emphasize merit principles in annual reports and other publications and show how all personnel department activities are directed toward getting and retaining the best people.
 - b. Take every opportunity (and make opportunities) to address civic groups, students, etc., on the merit system and how it works.
 - c. Develop good relations with the press in order to get adequate and favorable publicity for the job the personnel agency is doing.
 - d. Try to demonstrate to the political leadership of the jurisdiction that good government is good politics.
2. Keep up with the latest developments in the personnel field and make sure procedures are actually promoting the merit system.
 - a. Keep an open mind about organizational structure as well as personnel techniques and procedures. There is more than one way to skin a cat.
 - b. Be on the lookout for amendments to the law and rules and procedures which will enhance the merit principle. Publicize the need for any changes.
 - c. Try to set aside a certain amount of time every week for study.
3. Make sure employees, supervisors, administrators understand the merit system and how it benefits them, so they will help you support it.

These, of course, are not all the steps personnel people can take to help the merit system. But you will notice that all of them are *positive, continuing* actions. It is difficult for the personnel man to act when a crisis arises. He must have laid the ground work which will bring others to his support. In the final analysis, it is how the personnel man does his day to day job that provides the best protection to the merit system.

Kenneth O. Warner, EDITOR

Personnel Interchange Between Merit Systems

Gilbert A. Schulkind

ABOUT 85 percent of employment in the federal government is now under the competitive civil service system administered by the U. S. Civil Service Commission. The remaining 15 percent is "excepted" from the competitive requirements of the Civil Service Act of 1883 by statute or by administrative action. Some agencies employing excepted employees operate independent personnel systems which have been called "merit systems" by various sources.

Free interchange of employees between the competitive civil service and other independent personnel systems in the executive branch has not been possible up to now. Initial entry into the competitive service through appointments conferring competitive civil service status generally requires open competitive examinations. Persons employed in independent personnel systems who desire to move to jobs in the competitive civil service must compete with the general public in such examinations. They may be appointed only if they are among the top three available candidates. Similarly, employees of the competitive civil service who seek employment with independent personnel systems in the federal government are placed on the same footing as persons who have never served with the federal government.

The Commission on Organization of the Executive Branch of the Government, the so-called second Hoover Commission, called attention to this situation. In its Report on Personnel and Civil Service issued February 1955, it recommended that:

Persons who have served satisfactorily in a recognized federal merit system outside the civil service should receive status and thereby be eligible for transfer to a competitive job under the Civil Service Act. Correspondingly, legislation governing personnel systems outside of the civil service laws should be modified to

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permit persons with civil service status reciprocal rights under other certified merit systems. People who have served the federal government under a true merit system should be available for use anywhere in the government.

Commission Sets Up Framework for Interchange

The U.S. Civil Service Commission had also given attention to this problem before the Hoover Commission report was published. On January 23, 1955, the Civil Service Rules were amended upon recommendation of the Commission to provide a framework for working out practical methods of interchanging employees between the competitive civil service and independent merit systems. A new section was added to the Rules providing that:

06.7. Whenever the Commission and any federal agency having an established merit system determine it to be in the interest of good administration and consistent with the intent of the civil service laws and any other applicable laws, they may enter into an agreement prescribing conditions under which persons may be moved from one system to the other and defining the status and tenure that the persons affected shall acquire upon such movement.

The purpose of this article is to describe the work that has been done by the Civil Service Commission to carry out this interchange provision in the Rules and to discuss some of the problems faced by the Commission in achieving this objective.

The first major problem of the Commission's staff was to define the term "merit

system." Thorough search of the literature in the field of public personnel administration shows that there is no commonly accepted definition. The Civil Service Commission's own regulations and instructions do not explicitly state the principles upon which they are based. Since it was necessary to review the operations of independent personnel systems to determine whether interchange agreements could be worked out which would meet the conditions of this new provision of the Rules, a working definition of the term had to be developed to make such identification possible.

A second and closely related problem was to define the meaning of the terms "consistent with the intent of the civil service laws and any other applicable laws." This required identification of the laws to be reviewed and agreement as to what action would be consistent with that intent.

The Commission staff believed that if sound working definitions of these terms could be established it would then be possible to develop a set of standards or criteria against which the operations of independent personnel systems could be reviewed. The first part of the project, therefore, was to establish sound working definitions and standards for this purpose.

What Is an Established Merit System?

To approach the problem from a practical standpoint, the Commission staff believed that it would not be necessary to arrive at a definition of the merit system that would have universal acceptance or validity for all purposes. The primary concern was to give practical effect to the interchange provision in the Civil Service Rules. This meant that a definition was needed which would foster the principles basic to the merit system in the competitive civil service as well as the principles basic to those independent personnel systems in the executive branch with which interchange might be arranged.

The Commission staff concluded that its consideration should be limited primarily to the method by which persons

enter into employment and advance in a personnel system. Although other important aspects of personnel management such as classification and compensation, service ratings, reduction in force, etc., are important to a complete merit system concept, we did not believe that it would be necessary to develop standards or criteria in these areas for the purpose of developing an interchange program.

It was also found helpful to distinguish between the term "merit system" and the term "career service" or "career system." These terms have often been used rather loosely and interchangeably in referring to the competitive civil service in the federal government. For the purpose of this project, it was important to recognize that, while merit systems tend to become career systems, not all career systems are necessarily merit systems.

It was important to approach this problem from the standpoint of objectives and principles rather than processes or procedures. If the processes by which the objectives are to be achieved are confused with the objectives themselves, all systems which differ from the competitive service in the mechanics employed would be excluded.

Three Common Objectives

With these general conclusions as background the Commission proceeded to analyze established merit systems, in federal, state and local government, as well as the literature in the field of public personnel administration. This review showed that all true merit systems have three basic objectives in common. They may be summarized as:

1. **Competence.**—Securing the best qualified and available personnel either for particular jobs or for entrance into careers in a personnel system.
2. **Political neutrality.**—Securing a stable and continuing body of employees dedicated to carrying out the policies established by officials responsible for policy formulation.
3. **Equal opportunity.**—Providing a substantially equal opportunity for all interested citizens to be considered for employment without discrimination based

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on racial, political, religious, or other grounds.

Securing the best qualified personnel either for particular jobs or for entrance into careers is essential in any personnel system which seeks to operate a merit system. Political neutrality is a necessity in our form of government to preserve the career aspects of merit systems while changes occur in political leadership. Neutrality must also include the concept that removals are not made for political reasons. Finally, equality of opportunity is one of the essential rights in a democracy. It constitutes a primary difference between most private employment and the public service. In a democracy, every citizen has a right to be considered for employment by his government on the basis of his merit and fitness for employment, and without discrimination. These three objectives were combined into a working definition of a merit system.

The next step was to determine what was meant by the term "established" when used in conjunction with the term "merit system." It was concluded that this term means that a framework for a system designed to meet the objectives cited above must be embodied in written form in law, rule, regulation, or instruction, and that day-to-day operations must accord with the written principles. *An established merit system, then, would be a personnel system which has a framework embodied in written form and which seeks to achieve, and in practice tends to achieve, the three primary objectives of competence, political neutrality, and equality of opportunity.*

Consistency with the Intent of the Civil Service Laws

The principal civil service law concerned is the Civil Service Act of 1883. The general intent of this law is to establish the framework for open competitive entrance to those positions which are brought under its coverage.

The Civil Service Act gives the U. S. Civil Service Commission the responsibility of aiding the President in preparing

suitable rules for carrying the Act into effect. It sets forth guides for what the rules should contain, "as nearly as the conditions of good administration will warrant." The fundamental principles stated in the law are (a) "open competitive examinations"; (b) these examinations shall be practical and "as far as may be, shall relate to those matters which fairly test the relative capacity and fitness of the persons examined to discharge the duties of the service into which they seek to be appointed"; (c) ranking of competitors and "selections according to grade from among those graded highest" in such examinations; (d) prohibitions against political influence; and (e) "non-competitive examinations in all proper cases where it is not feasible to hold competitive examinations."

The central concept of the Civil Service Act is embodied in the term "open competitive examination." This term as analyzed by the Commission contains seven basic elements:

1. **Publicity.**—For an examination to be truly open, there must be a reasonable amount of information made available to citizens about the existence of vacancies. If not, the basic principle of equality of opportunity will not be achieved.

2. **Opportunity to apply.**—Interested persons who have learned of the vacancy must have a reasonable opportunity to make known their availability for consideration.

3. **Equal and impartial application of realistic and reasonably valid standards of competence and fitness.**—The process of examination involves the measurement of individual competitors against a single standard. This standard must have a relation to the duties of the position or to the requirements of a career in the service.

4. **Absence of discrimination.**—The standards applied must not contain any factors that do not relate to competence and fitness. This means no requirement of political clearance or political test and no discrimination on racial, religious, or other grounds.

5. **Selection from among those considered**

most competent on the basis of the standards.

—The essence of competition implies the ranking of candidates in order of a relative evaluation of their competence and selection from among those considered most competent.

6. **Knowledge of the results.**—Citizens who apply should be able to learn of the consideration that was given to their applications. This is necessary to insure public confidence and is good practice in the relationship of government to its citizens.

7. **Entitlement to administrative review.**—Applicants should have an opportunity to request and receive a review of the results if they believe that the system has not been properly applied. This provides a safeguard against administrative error and final assurance that the entire process is both open and competitive.

The Civil Service Commission concluded that interchange with an independent personnel system which adheres to these seven basic elements making up the concept of open competition would be clearly consistent with the intent of the Civil Service Act.

Consistency with the Intent of Other Applicable Laws

In line with the original determination that for the purpose of this project review should be limited to matters involving recruitment, selection, and advancement of personnel, the Commission concluded that there is only one other law germane to this problem. The Veterans' Preference Act of 1944 contains certain provisions specifically concerned with the initial appointment of personnel. The employment provisions of this statute were the only ones which required consideration. Since most federal agencies having positions that are outside the competitive civil service are specifically covered by the employment provisions of the Veterans' Preference Act, the Commission could generally assume that interchange between such systems and the competitive civil service would be consistent with the intent of the Veterans' Preference Act.

Tentative Criteria

A summary of these factors which were identified in the analysis of the new Civil Service Rule provides a set of standards or criteria applicable to any independent federal personnel system for the purpose of determining whether that system is an "established merit system," and whether interchange of employees between that system and the competitive civil service would meet the conditions of the Rule. The next problem was to establish the approach to be used in applying these standards. The key to such an approach is found in the language of the Civil Service Act of 1883 itself. This Act uses such language as "as nearly as the conditions of good administration will warrant," "so far as may be," etc. This implies a test of reasonableness, administrative feasibility, and practicality. Thus, it is reasonable under certain circumstances to limit publicity or acceptance of applications to given geographic areas, to establish minimum age limits, to set physical standards and requirements, etc. The Commission concluded that the proposed merit system standards must be applied within this general spirit.

Another important factor to be considered was that of public policy that is overriding. An example is veteran preference in employment, which has been generally established in the law of most government jurisdictions. Similarly, residence requirements for certain positions, apportionment requirements such as those in the Civil Service Act of 1883, etc., are applications of this principle of public policy. The existence of such provisions can obviously not be a bar to interchange of personnel under merit system standards.

The Commission also determined that its standards must be tentative until they could be tested in practice against the actual operations of independent personnel systems to insure that they are both practical and realistic.

Next Steps

The next step in the project is to conduct negotiations with individual federal

agencies operating under independent personnel systems to determine whether these systems are established merit systems as defined by the tentative standards and criteria and whether interchange can be worked out on a practical basis.

The first interchange agreement was made between the Civil Service Commission and the Atomic Energy Commission, to be effective June 9, 1957. The Commission is negotiating with other agencies in the federal service which have independent personnel systems and additional interchange agreements will probably be concluded during 1957.

Predictions

The merit system standards which have been developed for the immediate purpose of establishing personnel interchange programs within the federal service have even broader implications for merit system administration generally. The time may not be too distant when serious consideration will be given to developing interchange programs between

the federal service and state and local governments which maintain established merit systems. Certainly the standards which have been developed could apply to interchange of personnel between jurisdictions as well as to the federal government alone.

For the competitive civil service system itself there are also important lessons to be learned from these merit system standards. They provide a firm basis for looking behind procedures and processes to basic objectives and principles. They give the United States Civil Service Commission a fresh chance to re-examine its methods of operation, its regulations, and even its legislative authorities in the light of basic principle. The development of these merit system standards may be recognized in the future as a milestone in the history of the merit system. They may have far-reaching effects, extending beyond their immediate purpose of providing a basis for personnel interchange between independent personnel systems in the executive branch of the federal government.

Spiritual Job Enlargement . . .

The most essential requisite of leadership in administration is the quality to inspire in men a sense of pride, a sense of accomplishment, and a satisfaction of having achieved "something" in the performance of their daily duties. The unceasing computation of tax by clerks, the indefatigable noting on files by assistants, the continuous concoction of mixtures by compounders, all have an ultimate objective far beyond the immediate ken of the performer. It falls upon the leader to let the "reason behind the rule" percolate down to the humblest operatives so that the environment necessary for the inculcation of a sense of objective is created.—K. N. BUTANI, *Indian Journal of Administration*, Vol. II, No. 4, 1956.

Cut the Cloth to Fit the Supervisor

Theodore P. Morris

FOR THE PAST FIVE YEARS the City of Pasadena has been in the process of developing, administering, and evaluating a management and supervisory training program. In undertaking this program we have not had a large staff of technicians or training specialists working on its development. We have not made heavy expenditures of funds for training facilities, equipment or programming. We have had no grand design for original research on the various phases of this program. Instead, it has been a modest effort, accomplished by the personnel director devoting part of his time to this program and integrating it into his other activities. This paper is being written to report the results of our efforts; how the program was developed, introduced and evaluated; and the conclusions that can be drawn from this experience.

Personnel Responsibilities of Supervisors

Most of the day-to-day personnel problems which arise in any organization are faced by the first-line supervisors, and not by the central personnel office. These first-line supervisors frequently participate in the selection of the individuals that may be employed in their section. After employment, the supervisor is responsible for the induction and orientation of the new employee. He is required to train the new employee how to perform his work in a proper manner. It is his task to counsel with the employee and to evaluate his progress. He must give his attention to grievances of the employee and take disciplinary action when necessary. He is in charge of the safety program for his section and must see that safety rules are not violated and that accidents are properly investigated. He must advise on the layoff or termination of employees. And, finally, the supervisor is held accountable for the morale and efficiency of his section. It is

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generally recognized that the approach used by the supervisor in dealing with such problems will determine to a great extent how effective his unit will be.

Our educational institutions, fine as they are, do not provide us with employees who are ready-trained in the basic knowledges and skills for successful supervision. These knowledges and skills are not necessarily acquired with the technical proficiency that may come with a trade or job, and which is usually the basis for promotion. Certainly, they are not acquired by seniority alone nor are they inherent in a man's personality. These knowledges and skills must be acquired on the job, and it is popularly assumed that they will be secured through experience, i.e., trial and error. This raises the question, however, of whether or not the acquiring of these knowledges and skills are far too important to be left to the uncertainty of chance. Would it not be wiser in any well run organization to teach and develop the skills and knowledges felt to be necessary for effective supervisory leadership.

Analyzing the Need for Training

It is well accepted by authorities in the field that any training to be successfully developed and introduced must be based upon the needs of the organization. Training must always be tailor made in terms of specific objectives to fit specific needs. It is not always easy, however, to determine just what these training needs and objectives are. Frequently, there is a noncritical assumption on the part of the

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training specialist that a training need exists for a certain type of training that may not be shared by the employees who would be most affected by the training. At times, there may be other factors which enter into the situation to complicate the need. Different needs may exist at different levels within the organization which may vary at different times. Not only is it essential that the needs that do exist be identified, but interest in fulfilling those needs through a training program must be created and promoted.

In analyzing training needs, the Personnel Department of the City of Pasadena constructed a training inventory questionnaire in the hope that it would reveal the various training needs of the different departments. This questionnaire tried to get at both the immediate and future needs for various types of training programs. In addition, information was desired as to whether or not employees would be willing to participate in training programs on their own time. These questionnaires were distributed through the operating departments to various levels of supervision, but no signatures were required. A tabulation of the results of this training inventory questionnaire follows:

<i>Suggested Courses</i>	<i>No Need</i>	<i>Im- mediate</i>	<i>Future</i>
Telephone Courtesy . . .	28	21	13
Correspondence	42	11	11
Driver Education			
and Safety	35	9	17
Work Simplification . .	26	26	10
Supervisory Training .	17	17	35
Human Relations . . .	16	21	34
Misc. Subjects	7

Seventy-four supervisors answered the questionnaire; however, not all supervisors answered all items. Out of sixty-nine supervisors, it was found that fifty-two felt an immediate or future need for some type of supervisory training. The majority of supervisors also felt there was no need for some type of telephone courtesy training or correspondence training. This can be partly understood in view of the fact that the majority of the supervisors

completing the questionnaire were male employees working on the outside. On the other hand, it was interesting to note that driver education and safety which should appeal to most male employees was felt not likely to be needed. There was no great interest in work simplification. Fifty-five out of seventy-one supervisors felt some type of need for human relations training which could be thought of as part of an over-all supervisory training program. It was interesting to see that most supervisors (29) were willing to participate in training courses on their own time. A fewer number (24) were willing to attend half on the City's time and half on their own time, and the least number (21) were willing to attend only on the City's time. Normally, one might expect these figures would be in reverse order.

Developing the Supervisory Training Course

Initially, our aim in introducing a supervisory training course was to gain acceptance of the program—introducing the kind of course that would receive the endorsement of our department heads. In other words, our principal concern at this stage was not so much what would be most desirable or ideal, but what could be done that would be approved. The primary objective was to present a relatively short, interesting course that could be used later as the foundation for building a more extensive and desirable program. After the program was successfully introduced, objectives could be redefined and greater emphasis placed on laying a real foundation for improving supervision.

With encouragement from the operating departments, our next objectives were: First, to develop a complete and comprehensive basic course; and, second, to secure as much participation among our operating department heads and supervisors in its development as possible. In planning a basic course, every effort was made to view the end result in terms of what was realistic for the supervisor. Would it help him to see the total job and how the various relationships bear on that job? Would it help him to have a better understanding of the human fac-

tors on the job as they apply to concrete situations? Would the knowledges and skills taught in the course enable him to make more effective decisions in the work situation? Would the course provide the basic skills and knowledges to which more advanced courses could be added at a later date?

Participation was encouraged by making the project a cooperative venture and by appealing for constructive criticism and suggestions after each session and after each course. This was done by holding a discussion after each session and by requiring the participants to fill out a questionnaire after each course and holding a critique on its results. This led the participants to feel that it was *their* course rather than just a course offered by the Personnel Department. After they had completed the course, they had many kind things to say about *their* course. The Park Superintendent made the remark that if the course was good enough for him, it was good enough for his supervisors. Another department head appointed an employee to a supervisory position on the condition that he would complete the course.

In reviewing the literature in the field, there seemed to be no general agreement with respect to the broad areas that a supervisory training course should encompass. Most of the course material and outlines that were examined were concerned primarily with the techniques of the supervisors job or the "how to" approach. This "how to" approach outlined the techniques of supervision, but ignored the human factors that have a bearing on the techniques. It set forth generalizations regarding the supervisors job, but did not help the supervisor to understand how these generalizations applied to concrete human situations.

After analyzing our objectives, it was determined that a good supervisor must be familiar with at least five broad areas as follows:

1. A thorough knowledge of the specific technical duties and responsibilities of his job;
2. A knowledge of the principles of

management and how they apply to his work;

3. A knowledge of supervisory techniques in carrying out the details of his work;

4. A knowledge of the policies, rules, and regulations under which he must work; and,

5. The ability to handle people skillfully.

Because the knowledges required of the specific technical duties of each supervisor would be different in every case, this was not included in the course. Subsequently, it was also decided that since some of the policies, rules and regulations varied with departments, that this too would be included in another program.

Compiling Course Content

The task of compiling course content material was primarily a research job. Various sources were utilized in gathering this material. This included library research, introspection, observation and inquiry into the supervisor's job, and investigating what other agencies were doing in the way of supervisory training. In preparing this material, consideration was given to the method of training to be used, the amount of time to be allowed for each session, and the total number of sessions. From the information secured, detailed lesson plans were prepared for each topic session. These lesson plans were then assembled into an *Instructor's Manual for Management Development*.¹

At the outset, the topics covered included only six sessions, but with the advice and suggestions of department heads and supervisors participating in its development, the original sessions were revised and additional sessions were added to include the following:

Responsibilities of the Supervisor.—Job of management; responsibilities of supervision; delegation of authority and responsibility.

¹ Theodore P. Morris, *Instructor's Manual for Management Development*, City of Pasadena, 4th Revision, August, 1956, pp. 256. (A Manual can be obtained from the Personnel Office of the City of Pasadena. A charge of \$4.00 a copy is made to defray the expense of reproduction.)

Motivation.—The nature of human behavior. The working of human needs, their characteristics, and how they affect the job.

Blocking of Motives (Frustration).—Conflicts that lead to frustration. The resulting behavior. How they affect the job. What the supervisor can do about them.

Individual Differences.—The development of differences in individuals. How they affect job performance and supervision.

The Individual and the Group.—Types and characteristics of groups. How groups affect individuals. The rewards of group membership and how supervisors can effect group change.

Group Processes.—Some ways in which one group differs from another. How these differences affect morale. How the supervisor can create effective groups.

Communication.—When should oral or written communications be used? Why verbal communications break down. Techniques to promote better man-to-man communication.

Management Methods.—The job of management in planning, organizing, directing, coordinating, and maintaining control.

Work Methods Improvement.—The basic principles of problem-solving technique and how this technique can be applied to work methods improvement for improving job performance.

Fundamentals of Instruction I.—The trainee and the instructor as factors in the learning situation.

Fundamentals of Instruction II.—Methods and techniques of instruction. Steps in teaching a lesson of knowledge or skill.

Safety.—Requirements for an effective accident prevention program. Creating and maintaining interest in safety.

Standards of Performance.—How job performance standards can be established and used to aid in supervision.

Performance Evaluation.—The use of performance evaluation and conducting the performance evaluation interview.

Grievances.—Proper methods for handling grievances and how grievances can be kept to a minimum.

Discipline.—Methods of handling situations which require discipline and suggestions for forestalling the need for disciplinary action.

Leadership.—The nature and types of leadership and principles of leadership that can be applied to the job and group situations.

Administering the Supervisory Training Course

Two important aspects of a successful supervisory training program are proper introduction and smooth administration. Regardless of the preparation required in the development of a training course, unless it is properly introduced, it will fail at the outset. Many months in advance of the supervisory training course, preparation was made for its acceptance. The training inventory questionnaire was distributed to the departments in the hope that an indication could be found that would firmly establish a need for some type of supervisory training. This later proved to be the case. The department heads were informed of the survey results in the regular monthly department head meeting. Again, in a subsequent department head meeting, the group was informed that plans were underway to develop a supervisory training course. As the work on the course progressed, the department heads were kept informed as to its progress.

Department Heads Invited to Attend Course.

—At last, when the course was reasonably complete, it was decided that it should be commenced. In the next department head meeting the City Manager explained to the group that the Personnel Department was ready to start a pilot course in supervisory training and that, while it was not compulsory to attend, he hoped that the department heads would show an interest by their attendance. At this time the Personnel Director also indicated to the group that after completing preparation of this course, it was desired to secure the reaction of the department heads as to its completeness and adequacy. A statement as to the objectives of the course, the time and place it was to be held, the requirements of the course, and a schedule of the groupings of those to attend was then distributed to each department head. The department heads felt that they had had a part in its inception and one hundred percent of those scheduled attended and showed an exceptional interest in the course.

Conference Method Used.—In the conduct of the course, the conference or directed

discussion method was used. Sessions were arranged with groups of from fifteen to twenty individuals with no superior in the same group as his subordinate. After some experimenting it was felt that two hours seemed to be the most effective length of time for each session. One session was scheduled for each week. The course was started with department heads and assistants in morning sessions, later changed to late afternoon sessions, partly on the City time and partly on the supervisor's time, and subsequently shifted to evening sessions fully on the employees' own time. Those employees who attended at least eighty percent of the scheduled sessions received a certificate of completion.

Participants Given Work Books.—In every training session, each participant was given material for a supervisor workbook in a very brief outline form by title headings. This brief outline was used by the participant in taking his individual notes of the discussions under the outline headings. In this way, the discussion leader was able to lead the path of the discussion with a minimum degree of controlling the substance of what was said. The supervisors were also pleased to have their notes in an outline form which they could keep as a permanent record of the course.

Participants Given Projects.—During the course various methods were used to stimulate interest and participation. An informal permissive atmosphere was maintained to promote good discussion. Projects were assigned that were applicable to certain sessions. Thus, during the session on safety, supervisors were asked to analyze accidents within their departments; when discussing work simplification, they were asked to analyze procedures within their departments and make recommendations for better work methods. Projects were not feasible for all sessions, and at times, instead, a case history was used to stimulate discussion or role playing techniques were utilized.

Visual Aids Used.—The training aid most used during the conduct of the course was the blackboard. Other aides, however,

such as flannel boards, film and the opaque projector were also used. Books were used to good advantage by having them available in the classroom to be checked out on an informal basis for supplemental reading at home. In addition, posters were prepared for each session and posted on the wall of the classroom to highlight the central idea or theme of each session.

The key to effective administration is adequate planning and attention to small details that aid in the success of the program. Questions such as the following should be asked: Is there a satisfactory lesson plan prepared to allow the group a sense of direction and accomplishment? Does each lesson plan provide for strong motivation with a practical down-to-earth approach? Are the training facilities adequate to aid in the learning process? Are the participants treated in an informal and friendly manner? Is attention given to the maintenance of training records as to attendance and accomplishments? Advanced planning and thought given to such questions will aid immeasurably in assuring success of the program.

Evaluation

While no objective statistical criteria has been developed to evaluate the results of our program, much subjective evidence has been found. The results of the first three administrations of the course were evaluated by means of a survey questionnaire. The findings of these questionnaires were discussed at a critique meeting on the completion of each course. These questionnaires requested the opinions of participants on such things as the value of the course, content of course material, time allowed, outside work required, training aids, conduct of the conference sessions, additional training needs, and general suggestions or evaluation.

Space does not permit a full tabulation of the survey results. Practically one hundred percent, however, of those who participated in the course felt that it was of real value and that it had practical application to the work situation. Comments such as the following were made by de-

partment heads and higher level supervisors who attended the first three courses:

I feel that these courses have helped the city's efficiency at supervisory level and that the Personnel Department should be commended for instigating such a program in the City.

I think a training program such as this should be kept up, even if it means additional help in the Personnel Department.

I think it is a very good thing to bring employees of the City of Pasadena together to partake of this course. I know in my case it has made me feel closer to the *whole* than I had before.

It was an excellent course and well worth the time.

I feel that the course was well prepared and presented in an excellent fashion.

Pertinent and constructive suggestions were made as to additional material that should be added to the course as well as areas where they felt less emphasis should be given. As a result of these suggestions, additional sessions were added in the areas of human relations and communications. The participants stressed that more advanced training courses of this type would be of value and should be offered in the future. They also agreed that the conferences were conducted in an exceptionally effective manner. As a result of these critique meetings, the course was modified and developed to its present content.

One indication of the interest shown in any course are the records of attendance. During the first several administrations of the course there was almost one hundred percent attendance. One department head in the first course was so interested in the course that he came in during his vacation so he would not miss one of the sessions. Only one of the thirty-seven department heads and assistant department heads who started did not complete enough sessions to receive a certificate of completion.

During the administration of the first course for supervisors, twenty-four library books were made available which could be checked out at the conference room. This was done on an informal basis and no library cards were required. As ev-

idence of interest in the course, the librarian who had charge of this service reported that most books received eight to ten usages with the lowest usage four. She indicated that it was difficult to keep accurate records as some of the participants were exchanging books instead of returning them after each usage. Also, some of the participants were using the public library facilities in addition to this service. This usage demonstrated not only the value of this service but a real interest in the various areas of supervision covered in the course.

Summary and Conclusions

After living with supervisory training programs for five years, the questions might be asked: What have we learned? Are there suggestions that can be made to assist others in establishing a program? The following are some conclusions that we have reached as the result of our experience.

1. Like any other type of training program, the first step in the establishment of a supervisory training program is the recognition by management of the need for such a program. This requires more than merely the awareness by management of the need. It requires management's active support and cooperation in participating in the establishment and implementation of the program. If this is done enthusiastically, behavior all down the line will be a reflection of the example set by management.

2. It must be recognized that establishing an effective basic supervisory training program is a slow and gradual process. Long-term goals must be established, but before such objectives are attained there will be many deviations and side trips that will be found necessary. Preconceived ideas, attitudes, and behavior must be changed. Training material must be written and rewritten. Patience must be exercised to "make haste slowly" in getting the job done.

3. Once a basic supervisory or management development training program has been established, it should be continuous. Changes in every organization are constantly taking place. The program should provide for the proper training of the newly promoted supervisor, as well as the more advanced training of supervisors who have completed the basic course.

As previously mentioned, one of the long

range objectives of the supervisory training course was to use it as a basis for more advanced courses in specialized fields of supervision. The first step in this direction has already been taken by commencing a course in Instructor Training, primarily for those supervisors who have completed the basic course. This course in Instructor Training is meant to give every supervisor or potential supervisor some knowledge regarding the instructional situation, how to develop and prepare a training assignment; how to present it to subordinates; how to use training aides; and how to evaluate the results of this training. This is a practical type course allowing each member of the class time to present knowledge and skill lessons before the group.

4. Any complete and well balanced training program should revolve around a supervisory and management development program. Skill and technical training should not be ignored, but the principal training emphasis should be in the systematic development of employee attitudes and knowledges. Skill training should revolve around attitude training. An attempt should be made to interweave the importance of the human factors along with other types of training.

5. In developing a program of management development, it must be noted that it is not something that management can buy as a package. Every organization is unique unto itself, and training must be tailored to the needs of that organization. Unless this is done at the outset, there will be little interest shown in the program.

In summary, it can be said that our supervisory and management training program has paid dividends. It has been highly successful in terms of increasing the status of the Personnel Department and improving its relationship with the operating departments. In appreciation for a job well done on this program, the City Manager and all department heads and assistants signed a citation congratulating the Personnel Director for his

splendid contribution to good government in the City of Pasadena. We believe it has promoted a closer, more friendly relationship between supervisors and their subordinates. Furthermore, as a by-product, it has made training seem a natural thing. It has promoted interest and activity in other training programs as a matter of course.

One of the hopes of the Personnel Director in presenting this program failed to materialize. A course in Conference Leadership was given following several administrations of our supervisory training course to train some of our selected top level supervisors in conference leadership techniques. The purpose of this course was to train supervisors to conduct other courses in supervisory training within their own departments. With the exception of three departments—police, fire and the library departments—this expectation failed to be realized. Most of the supervisors who completed the course in conference leader techniques professed to be too busy in their day-to-day job to take on the additional responsibility of conducting a course in supervisory training for their own departments.

It can be seen from our experience that the preparation, introduction, administration, and evaluation of a supervisory training program can be a major undertaking with many ramifications. It poses many challenging problems which make it difficult for many of the smaller public agencies to institute such a program. In spite of these difficulties, however, it has been demonstrated that careful planning and systematic procedures and methods can bring successful results. Furthermore, that the most successful results can be secured by cutting the cloth to fit the supervisor.

The Man in Management . . .

"... highways and bridges are not built without people. Material things lie inert without the actions of man."—Oregon State Highway Department.

MORE THAN 10,000 men and women from nearly 100 nations are now working in international agencies. Living and working together, these representatives of many different races, creeds, and cultures are the human building blocks of structures erected to better international understanding and cooperation. Too often, however, the mortar that holds them together is of doubtful quality. However competent, however dedicated, these servants of international cooperation may be, their devotion to duty, their productivity, their job satisfaction, all may be obscured and thwarted for want of understanding of the psychology of international, personal relationships. In this article I will develop certain procedures and methods designed to improve the working environment for intercultural personnel which will more nearly assure success for the missions of international agencies.

International Agencies and Their Missions

Best known and the largest of the international agencies are the United Nations, the World Health Organization, the World Bank, the International Monetary Fund, the International Labor Organization, the International Civil Aeronautics Organization, the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, and the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization.

The importance of the mission of each of these organizations is hard to overstate. Among purposes of the United Nations, as set forth in Article I of its Charter, are that it shall "maintain international peace and security." Missions of the other organizations—all of which are independently managed by their own governing bodies and staffs—are pretty well indicated by their titles. A new agency, the International Atomic Energy Agency, has

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recently been established to make more generally available for peaceful use the great promise of nuclear power. More than eighty nations are now members of the United Nations and of most of the specialized agencies. The headquarters of two organizations are in Geneva, two are in Washington, and one each in New York, Montreal, Paris, and Rome. With the exception of the International Labor Organization, all have been established since 1945. The ILO has been in operation for more than thirty-five years. The United Nations has over four thousand employees, and the other agencies employ from several hundred to nearly a thousand persons. These men and women serve as economists, doctors, statisticians, administrators, foresters, and in many other professions. They also serve as stenographers, translators, and highly skilled technicians.

The Behavior Sciences and Personnel Administration

A recent article in this journal¹ carried an excellent description of present personnel programs administered by international organizations. The authors stated with wisdom that "the contributions of international administration to the field of personnel management lie more in the area of a flexible harmonizing of divergent cultural backgrounds than in the 'scientific' new techniques and mechanics common in this country." They also

¹ William Howell and Donald Fowler, "Personnel Programs of International Organizations," *Public Personnel Review*, October, 1956.

wisely stated that "international personnel programs are exercises in practical psychology."

I am persuaded that the contributions of psychology and its sister behavioral sciences of anthropology, sociology, and psychiatry have a substantial contribution to make to more effective management of international affairs generally and to personnel management particularly. It has recently been pointed out in a review of the advances of psychology that "the area that psychology includes is vast. It covers the spectrum from the physical sciences, through biology, to the social sciences, and has amassed literally mountains of empirical data. If we look at the absolute number of incontrovertible facts and valid generalizations concerning behavior, or if we contemplate in what ways psychology has helped us to 'understand' human nature thus far, we are not particularly impressed. On the other hand, if we contemplate what we knew about behavior in 1880 with what we know now, the extent of our progress is quite staggering. More important, perhaps, is the fact that we have firmly brought in the scientific method where it previously was not allowed."² A series of five articles published in *Life* magazine in January and February, 1957, dealt with the substantial impact that the growing science of psychology exerts on all our lives.

The Environment of International Employment

What, then, are some of the differences in personnel psychology in an international agency as compared with a national, state, provincial, or local government? There are many more differences than is generally realized. The staff member of an international agency works in a small community set in alien surroundings. He may find one or two nationals of his own country employed in the same organization, possibly more. But the chances are that he will find among his fellow employees many more people from countries other than his own. His job is

usually more anonymous, and probably more isolated and fragmented, than any in which he might have been employed in his own government. He faces a sense of loss that accompanies leaving one's home country—a loss of routine both at the office and in his home. Office routines will, of course, vary markedly from what he has been used to. Patterns of supervision are strange, both for supervisors and supervised. A cross-cultural atmosphere characterizes every office because a positive effort is made to obtain geographical representation among the staff not only in the organization as a whole, but in every unit.

Some supervisors will be skillful and understanding. Others will not. Many bring with them stereotyped beliefs about persons from other countries—that all people from one country are hard working and that those from another country are indolent. There is, of course, no rational basis for such beliefs. Even though there are cultural differences, most of the principles which typify human relationships cut across nations and cultures and will still apply in an international personnel setting. The person who is impelled to push other people around is going to push them around wherever he is; and because his anxiety is heightened by his own insecurity, he will probably be more hostile toward other people than usual. Communication, essential to effective administration, is more difficult because of the language problem as well as the cultural differences. Another problem in communication is caused by the inevitable anxiety that many persons feel when working in a multi-cultural atmosphere. There is a tendency, therefore, for some people to withhold information from others in an effort to increase their own stature. Secrecy imparts a sense of power.

Problems encountered by international civil servants at home are probably greater than those faced at the office. Their families are a long distance from their native country, and they are isolated from cultural roots and from friends and relatives. They may encounter very real prejudice on the part of the indigenous people. They may find it

² Joseph R. Royce, "Psychology in Mid-Twentieth Century," *American Scientist*, January, 1957.

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impossible to hear the music to which they are accustomed, to engage in the sports that they like best, or to attend the theater or the movies and hear a performance in their own language. Children will probably have to be educated in schools that are very different from those in their native country. Standards of medical care are probably different. Maintenance of their households presents unusual and difficult problems. There is frequently anxiety on the part of the wife about social demands that will be made on her, and this anxiety may result in hostility toward other wives and toward the people with whom she lives. Psychological problems created by both the office and home environments are therefore substantial.

Findings of UN Committee

These baffling problems were recognized by the committee appointed by the Secretary General of the United Nations, Dag Hammarskjöld, in the spring of 1955 to review salary differentials and cost-of-living adjustments for the staff and to recommend improvements. The committee included members from India, the Netherlands, Uruguay, and the United States. I served as the United States member. The committee report emphasized four points important for productivity and job satisfaction in any organization but especially significant in an international agency. They are:

1. The need to give the staff a sense of belonging to their organization;
2. The opportunity to do constructive work on important problems;
3. Adequate recognition of work well done;
4. A reasonable sense of security.

The committee noted that these "non-financial factors" constitute psychic income and are in many cases far more important to the recruitment and retention of superior staff members than pay and fringe-benefit factors.

UN Salary Review Committee

The committee recommended a number of specific adjustments in methods of

computing cost-of-living adjustments and differentials between posts, but also recommended that a broad inquiry should be undertaken periodically into the pay policy of the UN and the specialized agencies. This latter recommendation was adopted by the General Assembly of the United Nations in the fall of 1955 and the United Nations Salary Review Committee was established in the following spring. It included representatives from Argentina, Denmark, Egypt, France, Great Britain, India, Japan, New Zealand, Russia, Switzerland, and the United States. Again, I served as the United States member on this committee.

The committee report, submitted to the General Assembly in the fall of 1956, was directed primarily to the pay policies of the United Nations, the ILO, FAO, ICAO, UNESCO, and WHO. One section, "The Non-Financial Factors in Recruitment and Retention of Staff" was unanimously agreed to by all eleven members of the committee and was accepted without change by the General Assembly at its session in February, 1957. I desire particularly to discuss this section of the report in the remainder of this article, including observations of my own which, in my judgment, apply not only to international personnel administration, but also to overseas personnel problems, and to some extent to personnel management, generally.

The many interpersonal difficulties which attend employment in an international agency and living in a foreign community were mentioned above. It is clear that the difficulties are substantial and that special attention should be given to the field of international personnel psychology in order to improve the administration of international affairs, just as many American companies and some governments use the insights which industrial psychology has developed in recent years to improve employee relationships.

A Sense of Belonging

A sense of belonging to the new organization will be fostered in the new

employee even before he leaves home if he and his wife are given just as much information as possible about living and working conditions at his duty station. Before leaving for his assignment, he can be put in touch by mail with several of his future colleagues. He can be assisted greatly in getting his family located. Effective orientation and training are essential in order that he may understand exactly what is expected of him in his new post. It is also essential that the long-range, as well as the immediate, goal of the organization and of his particular unit are made clear and kept clear so that he becomes and remains identified with them. He is more likely to feel he belongs if the practice of organized staff participation in the formulation of personnel policies and procedures is encouraged. Importantly, the new employee and his family should develop a group of friends in his new community. He should be encouraged to seek membership in professional and social organizations. Assistance in house purchase (which in some countries is becoming a feature of commercial employment and is now under review by the United Nations) certainly merits consideration if appropriate arrangements and safeguards can be devised. In brief, positive action must be taken concerning the relationship between the new employee and the organization if he is to adjust satisfactorily to his new environment.

Opportunity for Constructive Work

Opportunity to do constructive work and to obtain job satisfaction will be increased by the maximum delegation of authority and responsibility consistent with sound administration. Good supervision, which gives support to the employee, and includes adequate consultation and contact between supervisors and subordinates, is essential. Job satisfaction is dependent to an important extent on the degree to which the staff is convinced of the importance of the goals and the efforts of the organization as a whole. Such conviction depends in large part on attitudes displayed by higher echelons of the organization and in particular by su-

pervisors. A proper attitude in such quarters will soon be diffused through the staff as a whole. Elimination, where possible, of nonessential work and substitution of constructive activity are necessary if the staff is to retain its enthusiasm and give of its best. If work in one unit becomes slack, surplus staff should be lent or transferred to other units where they can do productive work. More frequent rotation of staff between different units will also give a deeper sense of belonging to the entire organization, even though special loyalty to the individual unit may wane. The practice of transferring personnel from one international agency to another, on either a temporary or a permanent basis, would also help in staff development and assist in producing more effective coordination among the international organizations. Opportunity for constructive work is also increased through leave of absence for special training.

Recognition of Work Well Done

Perhaps the most difficult factor to analyze is that of giving adequate recognition to work well done. It is right that the civil servant who works as one of a team should be anonymous. This very anonymity frequently means, however, that he cannot obtain the personal recognition or prestige which he might obtain in other employment. Moreover, the position which an official occupies in an international organization, even though it sometimes carries a salary above what he could earn outside, may at the same time be lower in the hierarchal sense than that which he would hold in his own country. However, work in an international organization can bring prestige of its own if the organization is itself recognized as doing an effective job. Recognition must, to a large extent, therefore, depend on the individual's sense of public service and the staff's general feeling that the organization's goals and the goals of their particular unit are being realized.

The question of recognition of work well done is linked, of course, with the promotion system. In this sense the psychological aspects of the promotion sys-

tem are perhaps more important than the financial. It is essential not only that the system embodies the principles of justice and equity, but that the staff fully understands the system. Close cooperation between management and staff is especially important in the development of promotion policy.

A Sense of Security

The fourth point mentioned above is a sense of security. Security depends on much more than mere contractual status. All staff members must feel that they can rely upon their leaders and that the personnel policy of their organization is sound and fair. They must feel that the whole administration is activated by a sense of equity and that they are protected against arbitrary termination as long as their work is satisfactory. They must also feel that, along with their dependents, they are reasonably protected against hazards of illness and accidents which inevitably weigh more heavily on those who are serving in a foreign country.

The Salary Review Committee concluded this section of our report by recommending that a specific assignment should be made in every international agency to a small personnel committee of appropriate senior officials to give continuing consideration to the special nonfinancial problems of international service. We also proposed that the International Civil Service Advisory Board, representatives of nine nations who meet periodically to discuss international personnel problems, should include this sub-

ject on its agenda periodically so that constructive steps taken in one international agency might be considered by the other agencies.

Conclusion

In this article I have given special attention to nonfinancial aspects of service in international agencies. I do not wish my concern here to be misinterpreted—none of the substantial benefits which I believe will accrue to staff members of international agencies if the procedures outlined above are put into effect can be meaningful if pay scales are not reasonably well equated with salaries available for similar work elsewhere. Adequate salary schedules must prevail if we are to attract and retain the high-quality personnel required for international work assignments. On the other hand, no amount of pay however munificent will erase difficulties employees face with reference to intercultural personal relationships. Psychological needs of individuals, no matter what their economic status or country of origin, vary greatly from person to person. A comparatively small number are mature enough and blessed with built-in values strong enough to adjust to almost any situation. Nevertheless the social stresses of international service are substantial. I am convinced that special attention must be extended to the psychological needs of international employees in the interests of attaining the great goals of world peace and amity so splendidly expressed in the Charter of the United Nations.

The Two Sides of the Coin . . .

"Only if the taxpayers are receiving value for their money can we hope to receive money for our value."—*Professional Public Service*, March, 1957.

Relations of Operating Agencies to the Examining Process

Norman J. Powell and Marilyn Magner

WHAT RELATIONSHIPS should exist between a central personnel agency and the line departments in respect to examinations? The question is basic in modern government personnel administration not only concerning examining but also for such other aspects of personnel management as position classification, service rating, etc. Central-operating agency relationships in examinations determine the general outlines of the personnel selection process. And the selection process plays a leading part in determining the kind and quality of person recruited into public service.

Committee Studies Central-Line Relations

In recognition of the importance of the problem of central-line agency relations, the Personnel Council of New York City made one of its early projects the appointment of a committee to make recommendations about appropriate relations in connection with examinations. The committee, which consisted of persons with responsibility for establishment of personnel policy in the various municipal departments,¹ found a sphere of agreement and identified areas of disagreement. The consensus was that *some* working relation should exist between the Department of Personnel and the line agencies. The idea of a remotely situated central examination organization operating in limbo was swiftly rejected. More troublesome was the question of the form and character of the relation that ought to be established.

Two well-defined viewpoints were presented. One favored "partial decentralization" of the examination activity; the other advocated "complete centralization"

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All data, interpretations, and comments in this article represent solely the opinions, judgments, and responsibility of the authors.

with the opportunity for before-during-and-after-the-event comments from the operating department.

The Case for Partial Decentralization

Some of the more cogent arguments for giving operating agencies responsibility in examining are: (1) The line department has unique information about jobs and job requirements that can be applied to the development of examinations. (2) The line department is responsible for getting the departmental work done and there is greater pressure for avoiding selection errors. (The point was made that the Department of Personnel could shrug off mistakes and go on to its next assignment relatively unconcerned, whereas the line agency had to live with its mistakes. In order to survive, it needed to accent both validity and speed in its personnel selections.) (3) The line department is oriented in the direction of self-protection and self-service. What protects and serves the central personnel agency may differ from what helps the line departments. The stress of a central personnel agency tends to be on getting *its* work done and the central agency's work problems and schedules are not coincident with those of the line departments.

The Case for Centralization

Those who favor centralization of the examining process stress the following points: (1) Operating departments do not generally have the required test specialists on their staff as does the Department

¹ Norman J. Powell was chairman of this committee. Other members were Robert W. Brady, Samuel H. Galston, Henry L. Neubauer, Sol H. Renick, Philip Rippes, and Kalman Rothbaum. Dr. Theodore H. Lang, Deputy Personnel Director, New York City, assisted the committee in the study.

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of Personnel. (2) Participation in examination making by the line agencies would expose operating administrators to charges of favoritism, and even worse, that "politics" in the negative sense of the word would inevitably impair the examination process.

Agreeing that central-operating agency cooperation is vital in order to improve examination effectiveness, those who favor centralization also urge that the Department of Personnel submit to the line departments for comment copies of tentative examination announcements, including qualification requirements, examination subjects and weights, and references to examination scope. After the examination, the Department of Personnel would be expected to obtain from the line agency evaluative comments as a guide on the next occasion when the examination was given. In rating written, training and experience, or other tests, the central examination agency would consult the operating departments to get their views on general elements of test answers or candidates' backgrounds that warranted higher or lower credits. To increase the likelihood that the central agency would pay adequate attention to departmental statements, face-to-face conferences rather than communication by letters might be appropriate.

The Case for Compromise

Agreeing to the partial validity of some of the points mentioned above, the extensive participation adherents suggested the possibility of arrangements that combined aspects of both centralization and decentralization. When examinations covered a number of departments, the central agency could itself do the examining job and limit departmental participation to consultation. When an examination was to be given for a single department, the examination could be worked out by a committee consisting of line and central agency representatives. The committee would do the whole job of examination preparation and rating. It was argued that the idea was especially feasible for promotional examinations and cases

where one or two positions were to be filled in an agency.

A lesser degree of decentralization might consist of having the department assign one or more of its staff members to the central agency for a limited time to work under central agency control and jurisdiction. In any case, revisions in existing civil service law and rule would be necessary to admit the departments as partners or even aides in the examinations process. The central agency would be empowered to determine that individual agencies were or were not to be permitted extensive participation and would possess inspection powers to make sure the merit system mandates were being followed.

Differences of Opinion Are Philosophical

Committee discussion indicated that the basic conflict between the three groups was not technical and procedural; it was philosophical.

"Every man," said the group advocating centralization, "is ultimately a frail thing who must succumb to the pressures of the people who work with, over, and under him so that in the end decentralization of whatever degree guarantees a resurgence of the spoils system."

In response, the group advocating partial decentralization, said: "The personnel man in the operating department is under constant scrutiny by individual colleagues, supervisors, employee groups, the civil service press, and everyone else who has an interest in any examination outcome. His very situation insures that the personnel man cannot stray from acceptability and still survive."

"In fact," said the extensive participation proponents, "the nineteenth century battle of the civil service reformers in New York City has been won and the battle against spoils will stay won with the continuance of employee unions, civic and other interest groups, mass communications media, and the rest of the great array of modern instruments of inspection and control, plus those that are internal to the city administration such as its Department of Investigation, and its

Division of Administrative Analysis. The new struggle is to devise and implement ways of achieving responsible and effective personnel administration or, in the present context, working out one of its principal phases, the establishment of optimum examinations machinery."

Survey Made of Country-Wide Practice

When several of the committee members described the idea of decentralization as "revolutionary," it was decided to canvass city and state policy to get an overall view of the practice across the country. Accordingly, a letter of inquiry was addressed to 10 of the largest states and 21 of the largest cities in the United States. It should be observed that the letter was not a questionnaire. Six general questions were asked; respondents answered in free essay form and the content of the reply was then classified under one of the rubrics below. Results are given in the following tabulation. In some cases, jurisdictions either did not answer a question or gave a reply that we were unable to make out. This is the reason for the difference between the 31 jurisdictions to whom the letter was sent and the differing number of jurisdictions listed in the tables.

Various breakdowns of the data were made, such as city versus state, constitutional or charter mandate jurisdictions versus those with no such requirement. However, since none of the breakdowns proved particularly illuminating, the data are given only in summary fashion.

Possible shortcomings of the information in this table are easy to identify. For example, the letters were written only to central personnel agencies. Their appraisal of what they do may be distant from the judgment that others make. Nevertheless, the figures merit some study as the declared policy of our largest state and local jurisdictions.

Summary of Questions and Replies

Do operating departments make suggestions about subjects and weights and examination content? Are these suggestions accepted?

	<i>Number of Jurisdictions</i>
Close cooperation	20
Limited cooperation	6
Arm's length relationship	3

Do the departments ever write examination questions, serve as examiners, or engage in other examining activities?

	<i>Number of Jurisdictions</i>
Often write examinations	4
Sometimes or rarely write examinations	11
Never write examinations	13
Often serve as examiners	13
Sometimes serve as examiners ..	5
Never serve as examiners	10

Is the relationship for open competitive examinations the same as that for qualifying or noncompetitive tests?

	<i>Number of Jurisdictions</i>
Yes	7
No (closer relation)	2
No (less close relation)	1
No (without explanation of differences)	2
Qualifying tests not given	12
Noncompetitive tests not given ..	15

Is the relationship different for promotion tests?

	<i>Number of Jurisdictions</i>
Yes	4
Greater participation by operating agency	3
Less participation by operating agency	1
No	21
Promotion tests are not given ..	2

What changes, if any, are you currently contemplating making in the relationships between your department and the operating agencies?

	<i>Number of Jurisdictions</i>
No changes are contemplated . .	23
Changes contemplated involving greater participation and liai- son between operating agency and central personnel agency	3
New Commission to be estab- lished	1

What, if any, are the special constitu-
tional and legal requirements that de-
termine the central-operating agency re-
lationship?

	<i>Number of Jurisdictions</i>
State Constitution	4
City Charter	5
State Legislation	10
City Legislation	0
Civil Service Commission rules	2
None	9

Conclusions

Granted the federal form of the Amer-
ican government, the variety in state and
municipal practices indicated in the re-
plies is to be expected. Nevertheless, it is
evident that any jurisdiction embarking
on an examinations program embodying
intimate conjoining between the central
personnel agency and the line depart-
ments is doing nothing fairly to be de-
scribed as untried or radical. Not only the
United States Civil Service Commission

has embraced the operating departments
in formulating and working out exam-
inations. It is noteworthy that almost
half the jurisdictions surveyed say that
the departments often furnish people
who serve as examiners. Although model
practice is for the departments never to
write examinations, the fact is that they
often do so.

Most jurisdictions appear to be pretty
well satisfied with their current examina-
tions relations and tend not to utilize
special arrangements for special situa-
tions if they exist, as in promotion or
qualifying examinations.

Neither the qualitative nor the quan-
titative data conclusively buttresses the
feasibility or desirability of one or an-
other examinations arrangement between
the central and the operating personnel
agencies. Thus far, the committee of the
Personnel Council in New York City has
been able only to exclude two extremes.
It does not want to abolish the Depart-
ment of Personnel as an examinations
agency nor does it want to encase the De-
partment in an ivory tower. It is still
at work trying to figure out the extent, if
any, to which moderation of whatever
form is appropriate not only in contem-
porary politics but in a modern personnel
examinations system.

In any case, it is a hopeful augury that
the oldest local merit system in the United
States is re-examining its examining pro-
cesses.

A Personnel Definition . . .

"Personnel administration is the direction and coordination of the human
relations of any organization with a view to getting the maximum necessary
production with a minimum of effort and friction and with proper regard for
the genuine well-being of the worker."—*From Personnel Policies for Public
Health Nursing Agencies.*

The Modern Concept of Personnel Administration

Dr. Félix A. Nigro

SOME OFFICIALS have indicated to me that many administrative sectors do not know exactly what "personnel administration" is. Therefore, it may surprise you that I propose to speak about the "modern concept" of a subject which is not fully understood. However, I ask: "Is it true that the need for establishing modern programs of personnel administration is not appreciated in Guatemala? Can it be said that the modern concept of personnel administration has had no impact?" I say "no" to both questions. When I conferred recently with a high government official, he made the following query which I consider very significant: "How can we stimulate our employees and get them to do more for the country?" In synthesis, that is the modern concept of personnel administration, since the chief objective of such programs is to create an atmosphere in which the employee can work with enthusiasm and feel satisfied with his efforts. When an employee is enthusiastic about his job, he turns out more work for the state which is, of course, in the public interest.

Emphasis on Human Relations

With his question, I think that the official I quoted expressed very well the real reason for the establishment of systems of personnel administration in Guatemala. All peoples who feel a great desire to progress probe for the incentives which will mobilize all the latent energies of public employees. It may be that the details of modern systems of personnel are still in great part unknown in Guatemala, but the important thing is an understanding of the purposes of such systems, purposes of which the public offices and government corporations of Guatemala already are aware. Thus, it can be said that the modern concept of personnel administration is characterized by the emphasis which it gives to human relations.

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In the past, private companies in such countries as the United States and England stressed the introduction of more efficient methods, of new machines, and all those other procedures which we now call "scientific management." In showing so much concern for improved procedures, the human element—the feelings of the employees—was forgotten. Managers who were aware that the productivity of the worker depended a great deal on his attitude towards his work were relatively few. It was not grasped that, besides scientific management, programs of personnel administration, with emphasis on human relations, were needed. Today, this new approach characterizes the activities of many personnel departments, in public as well as in private enterprises. Such departments carry out very comprehensive programs: they do not limit themselves to the purely routine phases of accepting applications, and other appointment details.

Facets of a Modern Personnel Program

When the principal emphasis is placed on procedures, it cannot be said that a broad-gauged personnel program exists. The Director of Personnel should be a key official whose principal function is to stimulate the employees in order to obtain maximum performance from them. In accordance with this modern concept of personnel administration, activities should be developed such as:

1. The attraction of good candidates, by

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means of publicity, liaison with the press, educational institutions, professional organizations, and the community in general, and through a broad program of dissemination of information.

2. In-service training programs, aimed at improving the skills of the employees, raising their morale, and preparing them for promotions.

3. Systematic position classification and the establishment of a just salary plan, taking into account the strong competition which the private sector may offer.

4. A plan of promotions, based principally on the merits of the candidates, with the object of establishing a career system by means of which good people are recruited and, in accordance with their performance, are moved up the line until they reach the highest ranking positions.

5. A satisfactory plan for the periodic evaluation of the efficiency of the employees, in order to improve their performance and to identify the most competent ones.

6. Uniform and fair procedures for the consideration of disciplinary cases, with ample guarantees of justice for the employees, but providing the necessary sanctions, as well as for the elimination of the incompetents.

7. Medical services, sick and annual leave, and other welfare services.

8. Social activities such as sports, parties, dinners, and outings in order to assure friendship among the employees.

Brief History of Personnel Administration

If personnel administration is a new field in Guatemala, so is it also, relatively speaking, in all the nations of the world. Of course, the origins of this movement can be found in the writings of the philosophers and statesmen of the oldest civilizations of the world. The Chinese, the Greeks, and the Romans interested themselves to a certain extent in personnel questions, in the same way that many years later certain rulers like Benito Juárez in Mexico tried to improve the efficiency of public employees. Nevertheless, the modern period of the development of this field starts at the beginning of the twentieth century, with certain antecedents in the nineteenth century.

Taking England and the United States as examples, a brief summary of this development can be given. Both countries

went through a long period during which government jobs were handed out in accordance with the so-called system of "spoils," of the domination of the politicians and, consequently, of the notorious inefficiency of the public service.

Great Britain.—In the middle of the nineteenth century, the English began to lay the foundations of what later became a sound civil service system. For many people, the English civil service is a model: a great challenge to other countries which have not progressed as much in this field. A detailed discussion of the principal elements of the English civil service is not appropriate here, but I think it is important to emphasize that the merit system in the selection of personnel is in force in that country. Only those persons who have passed competitive examinations are appointed, and, therefore, government posts cannot be given away. In this respect, Great Britain has achieved more than the United States. While few positions are excluded from civil service in the former country, a greater number of high level officials is excluded in the latter. Of course, it would not be wise in any country in the world to place the Ministers and other high political officials of the government under the regulations of a civil service statute. A democratic state could not function if the Ministers were irremovable.

United States.—The fight for a civil service law in the United States was long and bitter. There were abuses of every kind beginning with the year 1832, when a picturesque President, Andrew Jackson, brought the "spoils system" to the federal government—the "spoils" belong to the victors in the political campaigns—a vice that some years before had become entrenched in the state governments of the country. Jackson justified his policy of mass dismissals of the employees of the previous administration, arguing that this was the way to prevent an oligarchic and antidemocratic bureaucracy. When governmental functions were not very extensive, and when the duties of the positions were rather simple, as in the times of Jackson, the spoils system did not have the grave consequences which it caused when public services became more complicated and came to cover much more

technical fields, like regulation of big business and the sanitation of vast urban centers. More and more the necessity of employing only persons who were well qualified for the performance of such services was perceived. Nevertheless, it was only until a man, who had sought, but been refused a federal job as reward for his political services, assassinated President Garfield in 1883, that the Congress approved a federal civil service law.

Since that time, the federal civil service has progressed steadily, succeeding in great measure in avoiding political contamination. This is a magnificent triumph, if we remember that approximately 90 percent of federal jobs are now subject to civil service provisions. Nevertheless, in recent years, the federal system has been the target of attacks by many people who believe that, while, on the one hand, it has eliminated political influences, on the other hand, it has introduced new evils, such as excessive red tape and procedures which are too rigid and thus inefficient for the recruitment of the government's manpower. This, in highlight form, is the evolution of civil service in the United States. However, it must be clarified that the civil service law referred to above applies only to the federal government. All the forty-eight states have their own administrative machinery. In almost half of them there is no civil service law, and, in some, public employees are changed in the same manner as in certain Latin American countries. Thus, it can be seen that in some parts of the United States the spoils system has not died, nor would it be possible to think that this will happen in the near future.

Latin America.—It should be pointed out that in recent years persistent efforts have been made in Latin America, sometimes with success, to incorporate civil service principles. In Central America, perhaps the example of Costa Rica is the most significant one. Since 1953, when a civil service statute was approved, a merit system prevails in the sister Republic, and it is accepted by the majority of the politicians. It is one thing to approve a civil service law; another to respect it. Since the beginning of this century, a civil service law has existed in Cuba, but it is said that it has

never been put into effect. Even in a country so highly developed as Uruguay, no attention is paid to a Statute of the Public Employee which was passed years ago. A civil service law has not been issued in El Salvador, but a central Personnel Department has functioned there since 1950.¹ In Honduras, as the result of a recent Civil Service Seminar, a project in which the UN collaborated through the ESAPAC,² it is planned to establish Departments of Personnel in several of the principal ministries.

In Guatemala, even though the government is still in the stage of considering different plans and projects, the same interest, and the same anxiety to improve the country's public administration, are to be noted. In any case, it is quite clear that the new ideas about personnel administration have spread throughout Latin America, although, these, of course, are the beginnings and much, therefore, remains to be done.

Civil Service and Politics

First, it is necessary to make clear what the term "civil service" means, and what "personnel administration" signifies. When we refer to civil service, we assume that a civil service law or statute has been issued. If civil service exists in a country, recruiting of personnel is effectuated on the basis of competitive examinations and a merit system is followed. Now, what is "personnel administration"? This concept refers to any program or system which has been organized in order to manage personnel matters in an efficient way. Although a civil service law may not exist, good personnel management programs can be established in some of the government agencies. For example, in Honduras, in view of the fact that it was not possible to achieve the immediate approval of a civil service law, the decision was made to establish personnel programs in two or three of the principal government agencies, as a

¹Effective Jan. 1, 1957, this Department was abolished. Efforts are being made, however, to obtain legislative and executive approval of a Civil Service Statute.

²Escuela Superior de Administración Pública América Central (Advanced School of Public Administration for Central America).

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partial solution to the problem. It is a question of timing, and while it is possible that favorable conditions do not yet exist in Guatemala, it is clear that personnel systems can be put into effect without waiting for a civil service law. Of course, the merit principle is essential; if this principle is not respected, you cannot have a good personnel program. Moreover, the rule of selecting personnel on the basis of merit should be extended to all the agencies of the government as soon as this proves possible. Although it would be an error to try to set up a civil service regime without first carefully preparing the ground, neither would it be wise to think that it would never be possible to introduce it in a given environment.

It is in point to make an analysis of the relationship which should exist between personnel administration and the political head of the state. These questions present themselves: "Is the merit principle compatible with the necessities of politics? Can the political head tolerate the existence of civil service? Is the spoils system indispensable to the functioning of political parties?" These are questions of vital importance, especially when a country has had no experience with civil service and does not know what it is like in practice.

Undoubtedly, the spoils system and making presents of government jobs are not compatible with civil service. It would be ridiculous to pretend that they are, and it is best to make this clear to the politicians and to the citizens. The problem reduces itself to persuading the politicians and the public that what suits them best is the merit principle in the selection of public employees. Such a policy signifies the elimination of the so-called "spoils" system, but there is no incompatibility between it and the necessities of politics. If such incompatibility had existed, civil service would not be a reality in England, the United States, Puerto Rico, and Costa Rica. In these countries, it was possible to convince the politicians that political campaigns could be waged without having to promise everyone a job with the government as a reward. Even more, it was possible in some cases to make them see that their support for civil service would earn

them many votes, because of the public's being so dissatisfied with the abuses of spoils.

A head of state should formulate and control the basic policies of the executive branch, and no official should be in a position to deny his leadership with respect to the definition of the objectives of the government's programs. The head of state cannot tolerate that kind of sabotage, and, in such case, he should remove from the service the officials who oppose his programs. If the political powers of a country approve a governmental action program, nobody in the executive branch has the right to sabotage it. The people who occupy political posts necessarily have to be politicians. Nevertheless, apart from key positions of this type, employees should be selected according to technical procedures and should not be discharged for political reasons. Political leaders who have given their support to civil service have realized that, if employees are not competent, it is not possible to successfully implement very much desired public welfare programs.

Civil Service and Tenure

Public employees themselves sometimes are to blame, for they insist on practices which harm the country. They do not always have a sense of responsibility; far from it, they sometimes pressure to secure privileges which, in the long run, make efficiency impossible. It should be pointed out that many times the opposition to civil service systems stems from the belief that such systems freeze the employees in their jobs, including those who are incompetent and disloyal to the regime in carrying out their duties. This fear is very deep-seated, and sometimes it is hard to persuade people that under civil service the incompetents can be fired.

In a civil service system, nobody is frozen in his post, although everyone is given certain guarantees, the chief one of these being that, if the employee performs efficiently and his conduct is good, he cannot be discharged. In other words, he enjoys tenure, provided he works well; he can't be removed for political reasons, or at the pure whim of his superiors. Every civil

service law provides for a probationary period, during which it is not considered that the employee has a permanent status, and he has to prove that he can perform the duties of his job efficiently. His superior can discharge him at any time during this probationary period, if he isn't satisfied with his performance, and the employee has no appeal. After he finishes the probationary period, the post is definitely granted him, but this does not mean that he is irremovable thereafter. On the contrary, if he does not fulfill the obligations established in the civil service statute, his chiefs can dismiss him. In such case, the employee has the right to appeal, and some civil service statutes provide for their reinstatement in their old jobs if this is ordered by the Civil Service Board or Tribunal.

If the employee is completely irremovable, nobody can control him. If he wants to work, he does so, but, if he doesn't want to, he does not, and, unfortunately, there are many who do not exert themselves with the same intensity if they know that nobody can discharge them. If civil service implied absolute tenure for public employees, it would not achieve its objectives. Nobody has the right to public employment in perpetuity, unconditionally. Efficiency should be an indispensable requisite.

It is a mistake to identify unconditional tenure with civil service. When the incompetents are not weeded out, the resultant problem is not attributable to a deficiency in the system, but rather to the inertia of the chiefs. Civil service protects against arbitrary action, but this does not mean that it has to be so inflexible that the incompetents cannot be eliminated. There is no doubt but that in some countries civil service has been deficient precisely because the superior officers have yielded to unreasonable pressures by the employees. The end objective ought to be efficiency, not the satisfaction of any demand by the employees.

Apart from unconditional tenure, there are other occasions when the employees sometimes request that the merit principle be ignored. For example, employees sometimes insist that promotions be based on

seniority instead of efficiency, or oppose the use of educational qualifications in the recruitment program. When educational requirements are completely discarded, it is difficult to see how the graduates of institutions of learning can be attracted to the government.

In Uruguay, the Constitution provides that no public employee can be dismissed without the consent of the Senate, and, even in this case, he has to have committed some criminal act or something similar. I don't have to tell you that unconditional tenure of the public employee has harmed the public administration of that country a good deal.

Some Suggestions for Guatemala

I have now expressed myself on: (1) the meaning of the terms "civil service" and "personnel administration"; (2) the relationship between both and the political head of the country; (3) the tenure rights of the public employee. I have done this in general terms, but now want to make my comments a little more concrete. Of course, I present these as suggestions, not as a plan of action, since I have not had time to make an exhaustive study.

Certain deficiencies in the administrative organization of the government departments have been pointed out to me. This does not surprise me. No country exists which has organized its administrative agencies perfectly and properly simplified its procedures and work flow. This is a problem of Organization and Methods, another of the specialized fields of public administration. . . .

Because of the dynamic nature of modern governments, public programs are inaugurated and changed with fantastic rapidity. For this reason, the Ministries and other public agencies must be organized and re-organized, as is happening right now in Guatemala.

Likewise, in getting the new programs under way, the antiquated and clumsy nature of age-old procedures and administrative structures which obstruct the smooth dispatch of governmental work becomes evident. New procedures, new equipment, the planning of each step in

the work flow, are necessary. All the techniques of O & M are required, and this constitutes one of the first necessities. I stress this, because reorganization of the agencies and simplification of procedures should precede the installation of more adequate personnel programs. This is seen very clearly in the case of position classification, a project in which I know the Guatemalan government has special interest. It would not be logical to go ahead with a classification survey when, in the interests of efficiency, the present distribution of functions should be changed. The logical thing would be first to reorganize the departments and redistribute the functions, and then prepare the classification plan. Many of the present salaries are unjust, and a uniform salary plan is needed, but first it is necessary to agree on an efficient plan of work for each department and for each employee.

Emphasis will be given to Organization and Management in the next General Course of the ESAPAC (Advanced School of Public Administration for Central America). I mention this emphasis on O & M, because the Government of Guatemala is interested in administrative reforms and needs well-qualified people in order to put into effect the required improvements. The school does not pretend to give complete training to O & M technicians in the short space of five months (the General Courses have that duration), but does offer a program of study, including supervised practices. Guatemala should, first, assure the preparation of a small nucleus of Guatemala O & M technicians for carrying out the work of the proposed Department of O & M; and, second, impart knowledge of a general, non-specialized character in this same field to high and middle level officials throughout the government. If it is really decided to establish the O & M Department, the necessity of training the technicians referred to is patent. Nevertheless, every high official and every supervisor should know something of O & M techniques and methods. Without their cooperation and understanding, it would be very difficult to put in practice the recommendations of the specialists. Among the principal ob-

jectives of the school is the broadening of the knowledges of the students so that they can profit from the new O & M techniques.

I said that the technicians of any O & M Department which is established ought to be Guatemalans. The assistance of foreign experts, and the technical assistance lent by the UN and the International Cooperation Administration of the United States, fill an immediate need, but the same problem will remain if there are no Guatemalans well qualified to put into effect the new systems adopted. It is precisely for this reason that the ESAPAC fulfills such an important role in Central America, since it trains Central Americans so that they themselves can solve the administrative problems of the area. When the School is transferred to Central American hands, one of the most important events in the history of public administration in Central America will have transpired.

In closing this talk, I want to point out that in El Salvador a National School of Public Administration has been established to supplement the program of the ESAPAC. While the ESAPAC dedicates its efforts to the training of high level officials, the National School of El Salvador serves the interests of middle level Salvadorean officials. It seems to me that Guatemala ought to create a National School of the same kind to train the considerable number of technicians who will be needed to implement the administrative reforms under consideration.

A Civil Service bill almost always provokes a long debate and much time can pass before a decision is taken on the matter. But, if the advantages are explained beforehand, it does not lend itself to as much controversy. From a practical point of view, it may be that the creation of such a National School would be one of the most logical steps for the immediate future. The UN has given technical assistance to the National School of El Salvador, and is ready to consider requests by other Central American Governments for the same kind of counsel.

In finishing this talk, I confess my admiration for so dynamic a country as Guatemala, because I have not missed not-

ing the vitality of its people and their desire for progress. When one walks in the streets of this Capital, one becomes aware of the deep sources and energy of the magnificent aspirations of a highly active people.

I have the impression that it will not be so difficult to create the climate of enthu-

siasm in the government which the top echelon is searching for. If the initial steps towards administrative reform seem very slow, it should not be forgotten that, in the long run, what is achieved will put Guatemala in the vanguard of the Central American countries in the field of public administration.

Job Satisfaction . . .

At the present time I spend most of my working time driving a Sweeper which picks up sand, bluestone, mud and various alluvial deposits from the streets. This is an important prelude to the oiling of the road. From time to time I drive a truck which is utilized in patching holes in the road. Also have driven a mowing machine which chops down weeds and grass flourishing along the highways and byways. In winter I have cut brush when none of the above activities are feasible. At present I amble out in the morning feeling as strong as a spring onion. Rapidly pouring four qts. of #50 oil in my antique sweeper, I then kick the accelerator vigorously while praying that the darned thing will start. Funny thing it does. On these happy occasions I wheel the sweeper around the gas shed while everybody runs rapidly for cover. Heaven help the guy who gets in the way. Then punctually at the stroke of 8, if all goes well, I sweep majestically out the gate and rapidly careen up the road at 14 miles per hour. Little children run and hide at my approach. A dense cloud of smoke constantly ensues, making me suspect that the manure wagon, as it is called, along with a few other things, would be pretty fair as a fogging machine. By this time the local citizenry is around, and snorts and snarls about all the dust I am raising ring out around mine ears, and yet devoted to duty, snug in my crow's nest, I sail majestically to and fro chuckling friendly the while. Nobody has hit me with a rock yet, but they will, boy they will. Along my line of flight I pick up an unending and interesting array of broken hootch bottles, confederate money, old newspapers, confetti, chewing gum wrappers, sand, mud, alluvial deposits and once I found a dime. However success did not go to my head. Next day saw me doing business at the same old stand. Such devotion should call for some signal recognition, and it has been reliably reported that I am getting a Congressional Citation for devotion over and beyond the call of duty.—*From a job survey questionnaire of a streetsweeper operator, submitted by Management Services Associates, Inc., New York City.*

Stretching the Tax Dollar Through a Suggestion Program

Bernard Rosen

RECENT PROGRESS in the federal suggestion program has been termed "spectacular." How this progress was made is important to all administrators—federal, state, and local—who are concerned with obtaining maximum value from the tax dollar.

Case History of a Suggestion

Bill Baker, who works for a medium-sized federal agency in Chicago, believes in minding his own business. If he has an idea and it's on something that he should do, he does it. But if his idea is about something that his boss should worry about or something that concerns somebody else, Bill just keeps still. He feels that the best way to get in trouble is to stick your nose in somebody else's business. Of course, this doesn't mean that he's given up griping about "personnel," "supplies," "engineering," and anything or anybody that occasionally fouls things up for him.

Lately, Bill has been having a tough time figuring things out. He keeps seeing things about the suggestion program. Posters on bulletin boards, slips with his checks, articles in the house organ, and occasionally a picture of the big boss giving a check to an employee—all plug away at the thought that management wants ideas from its employees on how to improve the work in their own units or in any other operation of which they have knowledge. Then to top it off, Bill's supervisor mentioned to him that he's anxious to have any suggestions Bill might have on improving the work.

Bill has some ideas, and he's gradually becoming convinced that maybe his ideas would be welcome. He picks up a suggestion blank from a little box fastened to the bulletin board and takes it home. A couple of days later he brings the completed form back, starts to put it in the suggestion box, and then changes his mind

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and decides to talk it over with his supervisor. Good thing he did, because his supervisor gave him several ideas for improving the write-up. Bill makes the changes and gives it to the supervisor, who sends it up to the Suggestion Awards Committee. Bill could drop it in the suggestion box but sees no need to do it because he's sure his supervisor will get it to the Committee just as fast and maybe even a little faster.

Several days later Bill gets a note from the Committee thanking him for his suggestion and advising that he will be notified as soon as a decision is reached. The note also asks him to send in any other suggestions he might have.

After a month and with no further word on his suggestion, Bill mentions it to his supervisor. The supervisor checks with the Secretary of the Committee and finds that the suggestion is under consideration in another division and that in reply to the Secretary's regular monthly follow-up the other division had stated that it would be about another three weeks before action is completed.

Before the end of the second month the Secretary of the Committee receives a memo from the Division which had been considering Bill's suggestion advising that the suggestion had been put to use and estimating first-year dollar-value benefits of \$300 plus certain intangible benefits. In addition, the memo pointed out that the

suggestion might also be useful in several other offices of the agency.

A week later the Suggestion Awards Committee meets. It is made up of the heads or assistant heads of the major units in the field establishment. They review the suggestion and the memo from the operating division concerned and decide that a cash award of \$30 would be appropriate in recognition of the tangible and intangible benefits. They also decide to send the suggestion to headquarters in Washington for possible use in other offices.

At the same meeting, the Committee approves an award for another suggestion that was adopted, and reviews the files on six suggestions which were found unusable by the divisions concerned. The Committee feels that the reasons provided for nonacceptance are clear in four of the cases but quite vague in the other two. They, therefore, instruct the Executive Secretary to write nonacceptance letters in the 4 cases, with full reasons for the action taken, and to return the other 2 cases to the appropriate division for further consideration.

Ten days later, and about 2½ months after he submitted his suggestion, all the employees in Bill's unit are called together and Bill is presented with a check (\$30 less federal income tax) for his adopted suggestion. The Division Chief is there too and a picture is taken of Bill, his supervisor, and the Division Chief. The following month the house organ carries a little story on Bill and his suggestion, and also his picture. Bill's wife is mighty proud of him, too. A picture of her man in the house organ is worth talking about. And the check—well, it's going for something special—a real fancy red fire engine that Bill, Jr., age 4, can pedal all around the neighborhood. Oh yes, something else—very important. A record of the award is placed in Bill's personnel folder. It'll carry some weight when he's considered for promotion . . . shows interest in the organization as well as ingenuity.

More for the Tax Dollar

Bill Baker is not a real person, but he could well be one of the 294,000 civil service employees of the U. S. Government

who submitted suggestions for improving the operations of our national government during the past fiscal year. One out of every four suggestions was adopted and put to use. These suggestions are increasing the purchasing power of the tax dollar at a time when higher costs are doing just the opposite. In 1956, suggestions stretched the federal tax dollar by over 69 million dollars.

As a direct result of employee suggestions, many federal activities have lower unit costs, higher production, increased safety, and greater employee satisfaction. Better service to the taxpayer frequently has its origin in an employee suggestion.

Another Look At Bill Baker

Bill Baker thought he might be considered a troublemaker if he expressed some ideas about changing things. That shell had to be pierced before Bill would make a suggestion. It took imaginative and continuing promotion and publicity, and finally Bill's supervisor, to break it open.

He asked his supervisor for help on his suggestion and got it. This strengthens the relationship between Bill and his supervisor. Once his suggestion was in, Bill didn't forget about it. In fact, he was quite concerned that someone else had forgotten about it. Bill stewed around quite a while before he got up enough nerve to ask his supervisor about the status of his suggestion. A lot of people never do ask; they just keep on stewing. Periodic word from the Committee is good business.

The operating division made the decision on whether to adopt it. The suggestion program doesn't limit the authority of any operating official. The Suggestion Awards Committee only determines whether adequate consideration has been given the suggestion, and if it is put to use, how much the award should be.

Only two out of eight suggestions were adopted. This is similar to the national averages in business as well as government—one adoption for every three nonacceptances.

The award was presented in Bill's unit. A recent survey shows that generally employees prefer it that way.

Most of us aspire to promotion. The

fact that the Division Chief, in addition to his own supervisor, now knew Bill made quite an impression on Bill and the other folks present.

The picture and news item were important too. In fact, Bill now feels that he's one of the people who are really keeping the operation going.

As for the way the award was spent, that too is important. It usually does go for something special on which the regular pay would not or could not be spent. And that's another reminder to Bill and his wife that it pays to think up ideas and send them in.

Suggestions: Half the Incentive Awards Program

The Government Employees' Incentive Awards Act, which became effective November 30, 1954, was designed to encourage improvements in government operations through *suggestions* and *superior performance* of more employees. This Act repealed several existing incentive awards laws which had been in effect for a number of years. A House of Representatives Subcommittee had characterized the programs under these laws as being in a "lethargical state" due to divided over-all responsibility and a lack of management interest within the agencies. The new law charged the Civil Service Commission with government-wide responsibility. The legislative history made it clear that vigorous, imaginative leadership was expected.

Although this discussion deals only with the suggestion program, it should be noted that the program for encouraging superior performance is of equal importance and has been equally successful to date. Effective conduct of the public's business demands good suggestions and superior performance from more employees. Cash and honorary awards are used to express management's interest and appreciation for good ideas and performance above job requirements.

In the Beginning

The federal government consists of very large departments and agencies like the Air Force and Veterans Administration, each of which has over 100,000 civilian

workers, and smaller agencies like the Civil Aeronautics Board with 600 employees, and the General Services Administration with 20,000 employees. A suggestion program suited to the needs of a large department might be impracticable for a small agency.

Therefore, the Civil Service Commission laid down broad principles for implementing the law. Agency heads were authorized to establish suggestion plans and programs tailored to their needs. The most important of the principles governing operation of agency programs are:

1. Suggestion programs must serve as an aid to management, suitable to the needs of the mission, organization, and employees of the particular agency. The primary objective is to encourage increased employee participation in the task of improving government operations through good ideas.
2. Authority to grant recognition and awards should be delegated to lower echelons consistent with their authority in other management areas.
3. Top management should emphasize to supervisors their key role in encouraging maximum employee participation.
4. Employee suggestions should be considered for application throughout the agency and for possible use in other agencies. Awards granted for adopted suggestions should be considered in selecting employees for promotion.
5. Effective promotion and publicity should be used to obtain maximum employee participation.

The departments and agencies established incentive awards plans in accordance with the principles stated above. The President set the tone for management interest and support when he wrote as follows to members of the Cabinet and heads of agencies:

I am firmly convinced that employees of the federal government can, through their diligence and competence, make further significant contributions to the important task of improving government operations. Wide participation by federal employees in this task is essential if we are to derive full benefit from the ingenuity and inventiveness that exist in the federal service. This participation can be obtained only if all levels of management and supervision understand its importance, encourage it, and insure that it is

promptly and properly recognized....I am relying upon you to provide personal leadership for the incentive awards program in your agency.

The Commission placed administrative responsibility for the government-wide program in the Office of the Executive Director. A small staff headed by a Director of Incentive Awards gives day-to-day program leadership. The members of the staff keep informed on suggestion programs in business and industry as well as in government. They advise the agencies on current practices, techniques, and methods used in successful suggestion programs. They develop guides for the use of all agencies. The Commission's inspection staff in Washington and the field reviews the operations of this program along with the inspection of other personnel-management programs. Those parts of inspection reports dealing with incentive awards are analyzed by the Incentive Awards Staff to determine agency-wide and bureau-wide trends and to identify problems needing attention. Since the agencies also receive these reports, it is not unusual to find, upon following up on a particular point, that the agency has already initiated action to clarify or improve the situation. Many agencies also review this program in connection with their own internal audits, and this, of course, helps to keep the program progressive and productive.

Over-all responsibility for administration of the program in the agency's headquarters office is generally at a high level. Some agencies have made the program a responsibility of the personnel office; others have placed it with the management office. In the larger agencies it is frequently a full-time responsibility of one or more employees in the headquarters office. In the smaller agencies it is often one of several duties assigned to an individual. With but few exceptions, the program operates better in agencies where it is a sole duty than in agencies where it is an added responsibility. This applies equally well in the field as in Washington. On the other hand, there appears to be no evidence to indicate that location of the function in either the personnel office or the management office is preferable. Management support

and the ability of the individual to whom responsibility has been assigned appear to be more important to the success of the program.

Keys to a Good Suggestion Program

1. Top management interest and support.

It takes more than a casual interest by top management to have a successful suggestion program.

a. Top management should positively ask for employee participation. A statement such as Secretary of the Treasury Humphrey made gets right to the point. "As public servants we have a special duty to reduce Treasury's operating costs to the lowest possible level. We are depending on your efforts and your suggestions to help us meet this obligation to our fellow citizens."

b. Top management should set program goals and require progress reports. Last year the Department of the Air Force decided to increase the effectiveness of its suggestion program by first increasing employee participation. A goal of 20 suggestions from every 100 employees for the year was decided on. This represented a sizeable increase over the level of participation in the previous year—14 from every 100 employees. Management all down the line was informed of this goal and periodic progress reports were required. By the end of the year employee participation not only reached the goal but actually exceeded it by 25 percent. Similar use of goals can be made with regard to quality and processing time.

c. Top management should participate in award ceremonies. A picture of the employee being congratulated by the top man on his earning an award becomes a prized possession. Other employees are encouraged to participate when they see management's interest in their participation. The President of one large company frequently goes out into the plant and asks the employee whose suggestion has been adopted to explain it to him. There's a lot of pride in that explanation!

d. Top management should consider awards in promotions. Adopted suggestions provide evidence of an employee's interest in the success of the operation beyond his own job requirements. They frequently show ingenuity, resourcefulness, and abilities which may not otherwise have come to management's attention. These qualities should not be overlooked when making promotions and the fact that they haven't been overlooked should be made known to all employees in order to further encourage their participation.

2. **Supervisory Support.**—A supervisor needs to be more than neutral on the suggestion program if it is to be productive. He needs to be *for* it. If he is *for* it, he should *offer* to help *and help* employees develop and write up their ideas. He should discuss the job with each employee and ask for ideas for possible improvements. And one more thing. He should help explain the nonacceptance of a suggestion to an employee. When a suggestion is adopted and an award is made, the supervisor should be one of the principals in the award presentation.

3. **Sound Administration.**—Employees should be informed when their suggestions are received and should be further informed if any delays develop in the consideration of the suggestion. Suggestions should be evaluated promptly and properly, and recognition and awards should likewise be appropriate and prompt. If a suggestion cannot be adopted, the reasons for non-adoption should be fully explained and the employee should be invited to submit additional suggestions.

4. **Promotion and Publicity.**—Good promotion and publicity is the fuel for the program. Employees need to be informed of the aims, methods, and benefits of the program. The publicity should develop their confidence in the program and above all it should stimulate an interest on the part of all employees to think creatively about their jobs and then to act by sending in those ideas they believe to be good.

Everyone Benefits

1. **Management.**—Management in government, like management in hundreds of large private firms, has found that for a relatively small investment major benefits can be reaped from suggestion programs. These benefits are of two types. The first are the tangible benefits which stem directly from some suggestions, such as increased production and savings in manpower and materials. These savings are generally used to reduce backlogs and do other essential work. In addition, there are many intangible benefits such as better service to taxpayers, improved safety conditions, and improved quality of work. Better employee-management relations

also come about through participation in a suggestion program. The feeling of belonging and of being a recognized part of the activity is of great importance in establishing and maintaining high productivity.

2. **Employees.**—For employees the suggestion program provides a system whereby they can demonstrate initiative and interest beyond their job requirements. It provides them with an opportunity for personal recognition and financial reward. By improving the operations of their agency through their suggestions, the employees also benefit as taxpayers. The suggestion program is a means for tapping the greatest asset of an organization—the experience, training, and ability of its employees. Those employees who bring creativeness and resourcefulness to their work are identified and granted recognition.

3. **Taxpayers.**—Suggestions make the tax dollar go farther. They bring about savings in manpower, money, materials, time, and space. They bring about improvements in methods, quality, service, working conditions, employee morale, and safety conditions. They reduce spoilage, breakage, duplication, and waste. They give the taxpayer more and better service for his tax dollar.

Suggestion Program Also Helps Other Management Programs

The suggestion program can help management achieve the objectives of other staff programs. It is practicable and beneficial to coordinate the suggestion program with the work simplification, safety, recruitment, and community relations programs. Let's consider each of these briefly.

1. **Work Simplification.**—Every administrator is responsible for achieving the mission of his organization as expeditiously as possible, with the least expense, and with the fewest possible employees. "Work simplification" is an important management technique for improving operations and reducing costs. Its object is to save manpower and to reduce the time of any operation involving human effort by simplifying methods rather than by increasing speed. Since both work simplification and the suggestion program are aimed at im-

proving operations, maximum coordination between them is obviously desirable and productive. Here are two ways in which the programs can be coordinated.

a. All adoptable ideas developed by employees through work simplification should be considered by the Awards Committee for award.

b. Employees can be advised periodically of specific problems that management wishes to solve and can be asked for their assistance through work simplification methods and rewarded for their ideas through the suggestion awards program.

In other words, through the use of awards for good ideas we can encourage more and better employee participation in the work simplification program.

2. **Safety.**—Another important program in every organization, from the viewpoint of both management and the employee, is the safety program. Safety is an integral part of the duties of line supervision. It is an essential part of management's drive to conserve manpower resources. From top management on down to first-line supervisors, all have the responsibility to promote safe operations, to look for improvements that will prevent hazards, and to provide a climate in which each employee is aware of the need for constant vigilance against accidents. In view of the millions of dollars that are wasted annually through accidents—to say nothing of the suffering and hardships of the individuals concerned—any technique that encourages employees to perform their work more safely must be developed and applied.

The suggestion program can support the safety program in several ways. For example:

a. By conducting promotional programs for suggestions with a safety theme.

b. By having all ideas which are submitted to the Safety Department and found useful referred to the Incentive Awards Committee for consideration for an award.

3. **Recruitment.**—In recruitment the basic objective is to attract and employ able persons under merit system principles. In some occupational fields the public service cannot compete with private industry on a salary basis. Consequently, it is of utmost

importance to utilize all the intangible factors which may influence an individual toward a career in the public service. Here are two ways for using the suggestion program to help us achieve our recruitment objectives:

a. The achievements of employees that are recognized with awards for suggestions should be fed back to the primary sources of recruitment of such personnel.

b. The fact that the government is interested in recruiting people who have fresh ideas, as evidenced by the extensive use of the suggestion program, should be built into recruiting literature and materials.

4. **Community Relations.**—The fourth program which we believe can be helped by an effective suggestion program is community relations. In many instances, a federal establishment, a state agency, or the local government is the largest activity in a particular area. It is of great importance to the effectiveness of government operations for such governmental bodies to conduct their business so there will be the best possible relations between their activities and the communities in which they are located. The objective is to have the citizens of the community recognize the governmental activity as a responsible and respected part of the total community and to have them regard its employees as performing essential work in a capable and efficient manner. Among other things, such a favorable attitude helps the activity recruit and retain able people.

An active suggestion program produces cases, materials, and occasions which can be effectively used to support the agency's community-relations program. For example, the two programs can be coordinated in these ways:

a. Making sure that the local community is fully aware of the notable employee suggestions which earned awards.

b. Inviting family and friends to the activity for awards ceremonies.

Concluding Thought

Occasionally we hear comments to the effect that a suggestion program reduces the authority and responsibilities of management. A suggestion program is not a substitute for good supervision, planning,

proper staffing, controls, or any of the other elements of effective administration. It is an aid to the administrator, a way of unleashing the vast potential of ingenuity and resourcefulness that exists in our

people. In fact, a successful suggestion program requires an even more sensitive management—a management sensitive to the influences which motivate people and sensitive to the need for progress.

Request Granted—We Hope . . .

Respected sir, when I got to the building, I found that the hurricane had knocked some bricks off the top. So I rigged up a beam with a pulley at the top of the building and hoisted up a couple of barrels full of bricks. When I fixed the building, there was a lot of bricks left over.

I hoisted the barrel back up again and secured the line at the bottom, and then went up and filled the barrel with extra bricks. Then I went to the bottom and cast off the line.

Unfortunately, the barrel of bricks was heavier than I was and before I knew what was happening the barrel started down, jerking me off the ground. I decided to hang on and halfway up I met the barrel coming down and received a severe blow on the shoulder.

I then continued to the top, banging my head against the beam and getting my finger jammed in the pulley. When the barrel hit the ground it burst its bottom, allowing all the bricks to spill out.

I was now heavier than the barrel and so started down again at high speed. Halfway down, I met the barrel coming up and received severe injuries to my shins. When I hit the ground I landed on the bricks, getting several painful cuts from the sharp edges.

At this point I must have lost my presence of mind, because I let go the line. The barrel then came down, giving me another heavy blow on the head and putting me in the hospital.

I respectfully request sick leave. From *The Manchester Guardian*. (Unsigned letter ostensibly from a brick-layer in Barbados to his contracting firm.)

Why Not a Personnel Technician Intern Program?

Wilbur L. Jenkins

OUR MORE PROGRESSIVE personnel departments are busily engaged in setting up training programs for the guidance and benefit of operating departments and even for other staff agencies. This is very sound and certainly an integral part of a good personnel program. But how much effort is exerted to train the staffs engaged in personnel work?

How Well Are Personnel People Prepared for Their Work?

It is true that most departments require educational achievements in certain prescribed fields, and many also require experience as a condition of employment. There are some colleges and universities which conduct specialized courses in personnel studies. There are also universities which have a form of intern program by which the student gains college credits and experience in a personnel department at the same time. This is certainly commendable and there is a continuing need for more of the same.

But in many respects personnel technicians and personnel administrators are the least prepared of all professions to engage in the important work assigned to them. They have one of the most difficult jobs in the world—dealing with *fellow* human beings. Yet how many of the people engaged in personnel work are really qualified to deal effectively with other people?

There are no quantitative figures to support the assumption, but I would hazard an opinion that the majority of those engaged in personnel work "backed into" the profession. Many entered the field only after trying several different types of work, such as teaching, sociology, etc. In other words, many of us are members of a "second choice" profession. Very few now in the field entered personnel work after special preparation and with a long-standing desire to make this our life's work.

• Wilbur L. Jenkins is Personnel Director of Maricopa County, Arizona.

The point of all this is that it is up to the personnel profession to establish intern programs within their own jurisdictions. But an apprentice personnel technician, who is thrown into the beginning levels of personnel surveys, examinations, etc., is not the object which I would set up for a personnel intern program. I would set the goal as being the complete education of the intern in the fundamentals of the jobs for which he will be called upon to recruit, examine, and survey individuals. Before a personnel technician can really know the components which should go into an examination, or the temperament which is best suited for a particular type of work, he must experience the problems and the frustrations, as well as the rewards, which derive from those jobs.

Personnel People Should Intern in Operating Departments

Select a technician who is qualified by educational courses, training, personality, and the other factors which go into the selection process. Preferably pick a man who is fresh from college, who has definitely decided upon public personnel work as a career, and who is willing to undergo rigid training before he sits in a personnel office and makes decisions affecting the lives and well-being of others. Pay him the same salary as any other technician.

Once the selection is made, a brief indoctrination program in the personnel department should be conducted. The intern should first go through all of the processes within the personnel department before anything else. He should fully understand the whys and wherefores of the paper work, the appeals procedures, the policies of the administration, and other pertinent information.

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Next the intern should be introduced to the department head of a pre-selected department. From that point on, and except for review of progress and the assignment to other departments, the link between the personnel department and the intern should be a thin one. In many ways the intern should disassociate himself from the personnel department. He should become mentally and physically an employee of the department in which he is placed.

The department head should assign the intern to as many different jobs within the department as he can. Let the intern spend as much time as necessary to grasp the essentials of the job. He does not have to develop the physical stamina to run a jackhammer, or the finger dexterity to run a billing machine, nor does he have to become a proficient draftsman, but in all cases he should attempt the jobs and find out for himself the true level of difficulty involved. Where it is absolutely impractical for the intern to attempt the actual operation of a piece of equipment he should at least have an opportunity to observe and learn the fundamentals of it.

In all assignments the intern must become part of the operation. He must not stand aloof as the emissary of the personnel department; for the period of the assignment he would be nothing more nor less than any other person engaged in the same work. By rotating his assignments within a department so he would cover all operations he will become acquainted not only with the processes but also with the people engaged in the work. He will have the opportunity to observe them as a fellow worker, not from the outside looking in. Their problems, their joys, and sorrows will become his. If the production is slow, he will be frustrated; if the work progresses commendably, he will share in the praise. In all cases he must be in complete empathy with the individuals with whom he is working. He must not wear a badge of authority as an "expert" from an administrative staff agency.

What Could Intern Program Accomplish?

The benefits to be expected from such a program are many. The intern should

gain a truer understanding of the jobs which he will later be called upon to evaluate for pay, classification, training, or testing purposes. The intern will have a chance to observe the operations without the veil which is an automatic defense against any "outsider" who is assigned to make a survey of a particular position or section or department. He will not be there with a pad and pencil, making notes and recommending on classifications. He will be there just as another pair of hands to help with the work.

In this process all should not be one-sided. The intern should not just receive information from the employees. He will also be selling the personnel program by lending a sympathetic ear to the problems of the individuals. Just by showing a genuine interest in the work being performed, an intern can do much to develop lasting rapport between himself and the operating employee. This should be even more intensified if the intern is actively seeking to master the mechanics of the operation and really trying to perform the tasks. It is a trait in human nature to be willing to help the beginner and to seek an outlet when given the opportunity to explain to a sympathetic ear just what our jobs are all about.

This program should last not more than one year. During that time an intern could cover most of the departments and at least get an idea of the various tasks being performed. In larger jurisdictions it might be necessary to break the intern program into sections, with assignments to specified departments, but without attempting to have any one intern cover all departments. In the smaller and medium sized agencies one person should be able to cover the territory satisfactorily.

The immediate questions which come to mind on such a proposal are: "How would the administration and the taxpayers benefit? What if the intern only stays for one year and then moves into some other department or organization? How can this be justified from an administrative viewpoint?"

The personnel department and the administration would receive full returns on this program just from the reservoir of

good will which would be a long lasting result. One of the common complaints in operating departments, and in too many cases they are justified, is that the technician assigned to make a survey did not really understand the job he was surveying. Often the statement is made that personnel people are theorists and ivory-towered idealists. They have no grasp of the difficulties of a job, or the problems inherent in it. And, due to the press of time, it is often necessary to make only a very cursory examination of a position before making recommendations affecting it. This is another complaint of the employees and the operating departments; the technician did not spend enough time on the study to make a thorough analysis.

How many of these complaints could be avoided if the person making a job analysis, for example, is the same intern who had spent time in the department learning what the jobs were all about? He would be greeted as a friend and as a person with understanding, rather than with the cold suspicion inherent in lack of common meeting grounds and ignorance of the personnel processes.

Even if the intern left after the one year program, benefits could still be derived from his time and the money which was paid to him if the personnel department required a weekly resume of his activities. At least a half day per week should be set aside for the intern to discuss with the other members of the personnel staff his observations and impressions. He should be required to put these observations, impressions, comments, and analyses on paper each week. A wealth of information could be gleaned from such reports. Even a person far removed from the scene of operations would have a grasp of the peculiar situations existing in a department by perusing such reports. It would prepare the technician to be better able to meet the idiosyncracies of individuals, or to circumvent departmental attitudes which are of an adverse nature.

A third benefit is the impression left upon the people with whom the intern has worked. The idea that the personnel department really seems to be interested enough to take the trouble to send some-

one down to them on such a program should do much to dispel suspicion and misunderstanding. This program would be profitable just on the employee relations angle alone.

Some Errors to Avoid

By the personnel department.—There are a couple of points which should be kept in mind. The personnel director must resist the temptation to pull the intern into the stream of personnel work prior to the completion of the internship. Under the pressure of heavy work loads and deadlines, it is only natural to want to temporarily use the technician or intern, always with the solemn observation that each time would be the last time. This would nullify the purpose of the program and would kill it immediately. Once an intern was pulled out of a department to make a survey or perform other personnel tasks he could only re-enter as a person connected with the personnel department. His actions would become subject to suspicion and every note taken and every movement would convince the employees that he was sent there as a "spy." He would no longer be one of the fellows; he would become a man from the personnel department. So caution number one is to resist the temptation to utilize the intern's abilities before the full fruition of the program.

By the operating department.—Another point is that preparation must be laid long in advance of placing an intern into a department. The department head must be fully informed of the purposes of the program and sold on the idea. It must be understood that the intern is to be treated as any other employee while in the department. He should not be expected to be a bridge between the department head and the personnel department. He should be considered as a "utility man." He should not be called upon by the department head to perform work of a strictly personnel technician nature. Also, the department head must resist the temptation to brainwash the intern to the extent of attempting to becloud the true nature of a position. At all times it must be kept in mind by the department head that the in-

tern does not represent the personnel department as such and is not there to make a survey or to give any interpretations of personnel policies, much less to make "unofficial" evaluations of positions.

By the intern.—The intern must be thoroughly indoctrinated before entering the operating departments to the thinking patterns of an ordinary worker. He must restrain himself from offering opinions or suggestions. Even if he sees an operation which could be bettered or eliminated, his methods of correcting the situation should not be through his ties with the personnel department. They should be through the normal channels of a suggestion system, if one exists, or in discussions over coffee, or, in a real emergency, by approaching the supervisor the same as any other employee would. But he must keep in mind at all times that once he steps out of the role of being a fellow worker and assumes the guise of a personnel analyst his usefulness in that department, and probably all other departments, is nullified as an intern. He would then of necessity have to enter the mainstream of personnel work.

The intern should be instructed that any reports which he makes must be discussed with the department or division head prior to submission. A copy of such reports should go to the department concerned. The reports should only contain impressions and observations, *not* recommendations.

In Summary

I believe an intern program is necessary for personnel technicians. A program such as the one outlined above would go far toward improving relationships between the personnel department and operating departments. The personnel department has much to gain through having a thoroughly qualified technician on its staff once the internship is completed. The personnel profession will gain from having well-qualified individuals in the field who have a real understanding of the line employees' problems. Furthermore, it wouldn't hurt most of us to take a sabbatical leave and try this out ourselves. Who knows, it might be that even we "experts" still have room for improvement.

Civil Service Examiner in Its Natural Habitat

THIS is a rare species which is fast becoming extinct. First observed near Washington, D. C. and Albany, N. Y. in 1883 it gradually extended its range to most of the United States and Canada. Naturally inquisitive and shy it has developed elaborate camouflage which permits it to mingle unnoticed with homo sapiens, of which it is considered by some authorities a sub-species. A theory, generally rejected, has been advanced that the Civil Service Examiner is actually an abnormal development or aberration occurring infrequently in homo sapiens. Support for this theory came from the fact that occasionally members of homo sapiens may join a Civil Service Examiner colony. Such contacts are usually short-lived, however and the individual homo sapiens soon finds the association distasteful.

The Civil Service Examiner is not to be confused with the Position Status Examiner, a more desirable species, usually found in the higher altitudes of the Administrative offices. It is readily distinguished from this latter species by the drooping corners of the mouth, the preoccupied facial expression, and the distinctive call "no-no-no-no" which is repeated rapidly and with great emphasis. The Civil Service Examiner occasionally leaves its natural habitat and is found roosting or browsing in odd corners of reference libraries, where it seems to prefer a diet of rare and esoteric data. The species is naturally gentle and harmless unless angered by protests, appeals or directives from the administrative office. Because of its failure to reproduce in sufficient numbers the species is in grave danger of early extinction.—CARL E. TREMER, *Principal Personnel Examiner, New York State Department of Civil Service.*

IMPORTANT QUESTIONS of personnel policy and practice seldom yield "cut-and-dried" answers. The editors have posed the question below to several persons representing different points of view to give readers guidelines in formulating their own policies.

The Question

"The traditional policy is to have the probationary period run for a fixed period such as six months. Do you think it would be a good idea to give the supervisor authority to end the probationary period whenever he believes the employee merits permanent status?"

Says **CLARENCE F. WILLEY . . .**

Professor of Psychology and Education, Norwich University, and Consultant to the Personnel Department, State of Vermont.

Public personnel administration must sometimes be highly legalistic to be fortified against challenges before appeal boards and in the courts. In other phases of operation, rigidity exists solely because of inertia and deficiencies of imagination. The fixed probationary period must be regarded as an example of unnecessary rigidity.

The fixed probationary period is a relic of an era of little confidence in selection or supervision. It has served its purpose and should now be superseded by more positive procedures. It should be kept on the books, if at all, only as an aid to defining the terminal date for deliberation in marginal cases; its significance otherwise ought to be gradually chipped away, and reference and recourse to it should become rare.

At the present time it is realistic to assume a high degree of efficiency in the selection process. The appointee survives a complex fivefold screening. He has selected himself as suitable for the position and has continued in this belief through all the formalities of the examination process. He has met the minimum qualifications, which are apt to err on the side of excessive restrictiveness. There has been some kind of formal or informal character investigation. An examination for ranking purposes has been conducted. There has been at least one elaborate appointment interview; more likely there have been several, with different staff members participating, and with these inter-

views followed by intensive conferring before a choice was made. It is recognized that the appointee is not going to be the perfect employee, but he has proven that he has indisputable merits and no fatally disqualifying liabilities. The appointee has received a much more exacting scrutiny than most private employers deem necessary, yet private employers do not hesitate to make initial appointments "permanent," subject, of course, to the customary "for cause" reservations, which will not be rewritten in more lenient phrasing after the first six months of employment.

The spread of management knowledge makes it permissible to assume that what has been so often advocated as indispensable orientation has become common practice in public personnel administration. If this assumption is correct, plenty of time is taken to introduce the new employee to the organization which he is joining. He is given a full view of the duties of his own position and also of those positions immediately above, beside, and below his. He is told to what extent he will be supervised. Work standards, with respect to quantity and quality, are specified in detail. The pace of work is made clear, as is the formality of dealings with the public and relationships within the organization. After all reasonable steps have been taken to make sure that the employee knows just what is expected of him, he is given an assignment and goes to work on it.

Now commences the phase in which good personnel management undermines the case for the rigid probationary period. Our new employee is going to make mistakes. These can be called to his attention as soon as they occur.

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Or they can be mulled over and relished in supervisory-administrative conclave, to be recorded for use on the day of judgment. It is largely a matter of whether the supervisor plays the role of supervisor, or the roles of *agent provocateur* and private eye. If the supervisor accepts and carries out his responsibility for constant and frank directing and evaluating, every working day of the new employee becomes an eight-hour examination. It will soon be evident whether the inevitable initial deficiencies can be overcome; once the supervisor is satisfied that the employee's work is going to be standard or better, it is difficult to see what is gained by prolonging beyond that point a probationary period which will only confirm the already proven.

The marginal appointee, selected because of a dearth of applicants, or perhaps the exception to the probabilities of thorough screening, cannot be made a permanent employee so quickly. What is needed to evaluate him is not the probationary period but a period of probation, which is quite a different thing. A true period of probation would be no set six months but rather an administratively determined five, eight, or twenty weeks for giving special supervisory assistance. Again, good supervision will permit early definition of the probable limits of improvement, and the supervisor, working intensively to help the employee, will soon have a wealth of data to back up whatever administrative action seems appropriate.

A fast decision on promoted employees should be even simpler, as there are usually only a few uncertainties, related to the new work, to be resolved. The principal hazards in advancement of an employee long in the organization lie in the doubts and anxieties of promotion, sometimes coupled with an inability to assume the impersonality which precludes close friendship with associates formerly of equal rank. Success or failure in accomplishing the transition should be evident quickly enough so that the position vacated by promotion could often be left unfilled until a final decision on the promotion is made, thus permitting a return to the position previously held, when this seems called for, without complicated readjustments.

The best examination is not performance on the job, as so often stated, but good supervision of such performance. To the extent techniques of supervision have improved during almost a hundred years of assiduous investigation of management problems, the period of probation can and should be reduced.

Says WILLIAM B. WEBSTER . . .

Personnel Director, Personnel Board, State of Washington.

I believe the supervisor should have authority and responsibility to terminate the probationary period whenever he believes the employee will not be able to handle the job satisfactorily.

It is not uncommon for a supervisor to seek advice regarding the handling of an employee whom he later realizes should have been terminated during his probationary period. I have heard this same point raised frequently by board members following the hearing of an appeal from dismissal.

The personnel administrator can assist the line supervisor in avoiding action which is either too hasty or too late through the medium of good procedure, supervisory training, and keeping a constant vigil for "smoke signals."

On the other hand, I believe that equal and fair treatment of all employees requires that the supervisor adhere to uniform probationary time limits in granting permanent status to employees whom he believes will perform satisfactorily.

New employees should have equal opportunity to acquire the benefits of permanent status without some having to wait longer than others. However, employment conditions are not uniform. Some supervisors make faster decisions than others; a supervisor may be able to observe one new employee more closely than another; some jobs require much more time than others for all of the important duties to occur or for the results of the employee's work to be evaluated; and, either supervisor or employee may change jobs before evaluations can be made.

Employment will be more attractive to new employees if they know definitely when they will become eligible to compete in promotional examinations, or participate in retirement and health plans, or in credit unions.

Says ULLMONT JAMES . . .

Director of Personnel, Government of the Virgin Islands of the United States.

I do not believe that a supervisor should have the authority to end a probationary period whenever he believes the employee merits permanent status. Such action would not only seem to be a hurried, emotional reaction, but would also defeat the objective purpose behind the establishment of the probationary period.

As is known, the probationary period is a working "test" period. A testing period requires the element of "time" if one is to arrive at a satisfactory decision—and be happy about it two years later if the person remains on the job.

Contrariwise, it may seem that the same argument would be proper in considering the termination of the probationary period for unsatisfactory services. This, however, is not necessarily true. Not only is the probationary period a time of observation, evaluation and adjustment, but it is also an opportunity for rejecting any employee whose performance does not meet the required standards or who may be unwilling to perform satisfactorily the duties of the position.

Procedure should also be established, however, to ensure correct records and reporting for satisfactory and unsatisfactory probationary periods.

Says MAX S. LINDEMANN . . .

*Personnel Officer, Personnel Department,
City of Madison, Wisconsin.*

In order to resolve a question of this type it is necessary to weigh the advantages against the disadvantages. The question may be resolved one way for one jurisdiction and another way for another. In fact, within any governmental organization, it may be to the advantage of employees as a whole and to the disadvantage of most supervisors, or vice versa. Within each of these employee and employer groups it may be to the best interests of some and to the apparent detriment of others. Consequently, the final decision must be made by the legislative body concerned.

A policy of this sort might be a morale booster to newly hired employees in that it would give them a sense of belonging, or status, and a desire for continued growth and self-improvement sooner than otherwise. In cases where merit salary increases were withheld until the completion of the probationary period, the sooner the new workers acquired permanent status, the quicker they would get their increases. However, the gaining of an early permanent status merely to gain salary advancement more quickly than otherwise, might lead to abuses and still not develop the "esprit de corps" desired. It would seem that the probationary salary increase should not depend solely upon obtaining an early permanent status.

One problem is that there might not be uniform administration of the provision. A possi-

ble solution would be to explain the procedure through intensive supervisory training across departmental lines. Another approach would be to begin with the top administrators, for example, the mayor or city manager and then discuss the proposed provision at a meeting of department heads. After they have developed the idea themselves, it could be presented to all supervisory personnel for further review and development. Thereafter, there could be discussions in small employee groups and final acceptance at a general meeting of all employees. Another way, of course, is to pass the law and try to get compliance afterwards.

If supervisory personnel are not thoroughly sold on the advantages of such a policy to begin with, forcing them to a decision even in meritorious cases, may do more harm than good, not only for the new employees, but also for those supervisors who prefer not to do so because of their belief in a fixed period system, or are not willing to face the issue. The policy will not look like favoritism to the rest of the employees, both older and recently hired, if they realize that the positive action taken by the supervisor to end the probationary period was in behalf of a well qualified employee who has been sufficiently accepted into the group, provided that the group has a fundamental belief in a system of merit as contrasted to strict seniority.

Whether the administration of probation is under a merit system, by union agreement, or otherwise, it would seem to be helpful to have a written policy establishing a uniform system to the extent that there be a minimum period of about one-half the length of the full fixed period before the probationary period could be terminated. In other words, no six-month probationary periods to end before three months. For school librarians and a few others, a full school year might be essential.

A policy of shortening the probationary period in meritorious cases may tend to help most employers to aid in the orientation of all new employees in an attitude of mutual trust and confidence. Also, it is to be hoped that the newly hired employees would take a positive attitude toward probation rather than a negative one of marking time during the fixed probationary period. There would be some incentive for probationers to get into permanent status ahead of the deadline, and thus give them some respect for the procedures involved. However, some newly hired employees, who expected to have their probationary period shortened because of what they thought was meritorious service, will be disappointed. A few of these cases may turn out to be mal-

contents unless properly counseled. In all cases of probationers, there should be continuous rapport between supervisors and employees to discuss these problems to the mutual satisfaction of each. In fact, if talking things over and reviewing performance were done with a constructive approach from time to time as the need arose during the probationary period, employees would understand pretty well their strengths and deficiencies. Then both could try to work out cooperatively a plan of development or improvement. In other words, probationary employees would be considered individually and as persons in accordance with their own mental and emotional needs and on their own merits rather than collectively under what might be considered a fixed period system, no matter how short or long the fixed period might be. Their abilities and skills might show up more quickly and their general attitude and sense of achievement be better from the beginning of their period of employment.

If employees begin with a better attitude toward the personnel rules and employment practices, it is entirely likely that they would have a better attitude throughout their working period concerning practically all administrative matters. Moreover, if administrative officials get to feel that they can take positive action before the completion of a fixed probationary period, this feeling on their part might tend to make for better supervisor-employee relationships.

A disadvantage is that outside of a few outstanding probationers, the dividing line between the excellent and satisfactory employees is not clear. It is a difficult problem for even one supervisor to be so exacting and to make decisions in borderline cases. Moreover, there is always the possibility of employees submerging weaknesses until after the close of a probationary period whether for a fixed period or for a shorter one. Of course, the longer the probationary period, the less likelihood there is of this being done. However, where deficiencies are hidden because of fear and not objectively discussed by both the workers and the employers with sympathy and understanding on the part of the supervisors and with a view towards the improvement of weaknesses, there is very little if any opportunity for the situation to be corrected. The tendency in many fixed period arrangements is to let matters slide, though this need not be so. Conversely, unless there is a sufficiently constructive approach toward the problem of ending the probationary period whenever supervisors believe the employees merit permanent status, the

mere early ending of a fixed period of probation may not bring the desired results.

Thus, it seems there would be considerable difficulty in administering such a program. However, the effort might be well worth while. Supervisory attitudes, at least during the probationary period, would probably be sharpened. More attention might be paid to in-service training. And last, but not least, there is the possibility of improving morale, at least among probationary workers.

Says **WAYNE HIGBEE . . .**

Personnel Director, City of Santa Monica, California.

I could simply answer NO and let it go at that, but I suppose I should give some reasons. Before we discuss a flexible probationary period, let's re-examine the purpose of this period.

The probationary period should be regarded as an integral part of the examination process. The supervisor should take advantage of this period of time to secure the most effective adjustment of a new employee to his position; to closely observe the employee's work for the purpose of helping him develop in skill and efficiency; and to dismiss any employee whose performance does not meet the required work standards. It is the supervisor's duty, during the probationary period of each employee, to investigate thoroughly the efficiency, attitude, integrity, and adaptability of such employee and to determine whether or not the employee should be retained in the public service.

The employee, too, has obligations during this period. It is his opportunity to prove to his supervisor that he can perform efficiently on the job after having attained the eligible list. The supervisor should establish certain objectives or goals of efficiency and proficiency to be attained during the probationary period. These should not be established arbitrarily. These objectives have a much better chance of being reached if the employee himself is allowed to help set the schedule. If a job is broken down into its component parts, and the employee is given an opportunity to estimate how soon he feels he can attain each of these successively more difficult goals, a good working relationship between the employee and the supervisor can be established. Obviously this type of probationary training will vary with the class and also with the individual.

Now for the question. The question, as stated, implies that the supervisor would have discretionary power to end the probationary

period almost immediately after appointment, or continue it up to an indefinite number of months or years. It seems to me this could develop into an impossible situation. True, many employees can demonstrate in a short time that they are, and will continue to be, satisfactory employees. However, other employees in the same class, because of individual differences, may take longer to demonstrate efficiency. If a supervisor were to terminate one employee's probation after two months but continued the probationary period of another in the same class, a most disastrous morale problem could result.

There is no question but that individual differences vary greatly, but rating these individual differences through a formal rating system has pointed up the problem of comparing one employee with the other. Most supervisors are reluctant to rate realistically when a variance in ratings creates dissatisfaction within his immediate work group. This condition would be accentuated in the case of unequal probationary periods based on individual accomplishment.

Just as there are major differences among employees, supervisors too come in good, bad, and indifferent. Some supervisors would terminate a probationary period immediately to get the problem out of the way; others might dawdle for months. Standards for determining competence of performance would not be uniform.

A good case can be made for some flexibility of probationary periods, but it seems to me that this flexibility should be on a class rather than an individual basis. For unskilled or semi-skilled laborers, adaptability can be determined within a very short time. Six months, while an arbitrary figure, is probably a reasonable length of time for most classes. For some classes where training is a requirement during the first few weeks or months of service, or in a high level position where it takes some time for an incumbent to acquaint himself with all of the ramifications of the job, a year's probationary period might be valid. These are judgment decisions, but I believe control should be in the Personnel Department. Many times we have had supervisors request an extension of the probationary period on an individual basis. I do not believe this is good practice. If the work is such that all employees in a class should have a longer probationary period, that is one thing; but if the probationary period has been set at a reasonable length of time and other employees in the class have either been accepted or rejected during that time, it would take a very special set of circumstances to make

any exception on any individual employee. If an employee shows within a short period of time that he will successfully complete his probationary period, it would only be good management practice to inform him of this fact, compliment him on his excellent work and progress in the department, and assure him that when the time comes for the end of probation report, he will receive a satisfactory one. Conversely, if an employee is slow to adapt himself to the work situation, the terminal date of the probationary period can be pointed out to encourage the employee to improve his performance. These methods would avoid friction between individuals and between the employee and supervisor.

The charge is made many times that employees become permanent because a supervisor fails to take action even though he has some reservations concerning the employee. This can be overcome by a positive approach to the probationary period. Our Santa Monica rules provide that unless the appointing authority requests permanent status for an employee and gives substantiating reasons for this request, the employee is automatically terminated at the end of his probationary period. This forces the supervisor to state his opinion, and the Personnel Department polices the probationary period so that no one is inadvertently terminated.

I may have wandered all over the place on this question, but I would not recommend giving the supervisor authority to end the probationary period whenever he feels the employee has earned permanent status. In my opinion, such a policy would create more problems than it would solve.

Says MRS. ALMA ARMSTRONG . . .

Secretary, Jacksonville, Florida, Civil Service Board.

There have been some good reasons presented from time to time by personnel technicians, supervisory personnel, and even from probationary employees themselves to shorten the probationary period. For example, if an employee is able to demonstrate his ability to do the work, within a period of 30 days or less is it really necessary to require him to wait a period of six months or longer to acquire a permanent status because of some hard and fast fixed rule governing probationary period? However, it is a well accepted fact that the probationary employee is on his best behavior. He does his best to make good, knowing that he can be terminated without a right of appeal, and termination might jeopardize his

chances of being restored to the eligible list and place a bad mark on his employment record. Another factor to be considered is that job specifications often provide for varied duties to be performed. In a month's time, or even longer, for reasons sometimes beyond the supervisor's control, the probationary employee is not assigned to all these duties. Too often a probationary employee is regimented during the probationary period to one or two assignments described among several in the specifications for a particular class of work. If the probationary employee should be given a permanent status before he learns all of the duties associated with the job or before he has occasion to demonstrate his ability to perform all of the work required, it would be too late for the supervisor to take advantage of the probationary period. He would be subjected to appearing as a witness against the employee in a hearing or the department would be burdened with an incompetent employee. If the probationary period is shortened, it would be necessary to expedite the training of the employee in all phases of the work for which he was employed to enable the supervisor to give a fair appraisal of the employee and determine his ability to do the work required before according him a permanent status.

If a system should be devised whereby management could determine the period of probation with limitations as to the maximum time allowed, then other factors might enter into the picture and cause some chaos and dissension among the employees. Thus, the date the employee is made permanent is considered when seniority credits on promotional tests are figured. In many jurisdictions it is the date the employee becomes a member of the pension fund. Many sets of rules provide that only permanent employees can participate in promotional tests. If two or more employees are hired on a probationary basis about the same time and in the same department and one is made permanent within 30 days and the other at the end of six months or a year, no uniform procedure would be in effect. The employee who was required to wait a longer period of time would most likely develop the attitude that he was being discriminated against, particularly if his longer probationary period was required due to the characteristics of his position over which he had no control. Then, too, it would be burdensome for the personnel or civil service department to follow up on reasons why one employee was required to serve 30 days and another a longer period if this should be a function of the personnel department.

In some jurisdictions, a medical examination is required before an employee can obtain a permanent status. In some jurisdictions, the personnel department sends notices to department heads at least 30 days before the expiration of the probationary period to remind them that the employee will acquire permanent status if he remains in the employ of the city or county for a period longer than the period of probation authorized. It would be somewhat difficult for a personnel department to know when to send these reminders if the period of probation should be left to the discretion of the department head with restrictions as to the maximum time allowed.

We must face the fact that many supervisors and department heads are too lenient in appraising probationary employees and too lax in dismissing an incompetent probationary employee. To authorize such supervisors to shorten the probationary period would tend to render the probationary period virtually ineffective.

Instead of a shorter probationary period, it might often be advantageous to have a longer period. Lengthening the period would provide more time to educate supervisors to the advantages and uses of the probationary period; to make follow ups and send reminders to department heads; to ask for reports on probationary employees; and to secure information for a test evaluation program to determine whether or not the recruiting program is giving good results. To shorten the period of probation would likewise shorten the period of time the personnel department would have to make these necessary inquiries regarding the work performance of probationary employees.

Provisional appointees frequently have political connections. Even though they may have the ability to pass the required examination and receive a change of status from provisional to probationary, in their great anxiety to be accorded a permanent status they may cause political pressure to be exerted on a supervisor to shorten the probationary period before a fair appraisal of the employee's ability can be made.

There are some positions that entail routine duties which require a shorter period of probation. In such cases it sometimes happens that although the employee learns the work and becomes permanent, he cannot be assigned to answer a telephone, relieve another staff member, or make contacts with the public due to his temperament or some personality traits that was not revealed or noticed during the early months of the employee's service. Not

only do we need to learn that the employee can demonstrate his ability to do the general work required; we must also find out if he is emotionally stable, dependable, and will follow through and complete assignments. Only time itself will divulge unfavorable characteristics not readily discernible during the first months or weeks of an employee's probationary employment. It has been found in some localities that the seeds of dissension take root when an employee is required to serve the maximum period of probation when he knows that the department head could have shortened the probationary period had he simply made the request.

Some personnel technicians have recom-

mended that an employee should not *automatically* acquire a permanent status at the expiration of his probationary period but that the department head must give a report of the satisfactory work performed by the employee for him to secure permanent status. Such a procedure certainly should be in effect in jurisdictions where the probationary period is either shortened or can be ended any time within a period of from one to six months or from one month to a year. It would appear that this plan would also be beneficial even if the probationary period covers a specific or fixed period of time as it would serve to alert the department head regarding his responsibility in connection with this important subject.

Five Sense Worth . . .

Someone with a yen for mathematics has figured out that to earn your living, you depend on your eyesight six times as much as our other four senses combined. Of course, if you are a piano tuner, a tea taster or a perfume sampler, it might be different, but for the average person the relative value of your senses is as follows: Eyesight 87.0%; Hearing 7.0%; Smell 3.5%; Touch 1.5%; Taste 1.0%. If you are on an eye-hazardous job anywhere, at the shop or at home, you can't afford to gamble with your eyesight. Wear eye protective equipment because it's smart to do so.

You can walk on an artificial leg.

You can eat with an artificial hand.

But you can't see out of an artificial eye.—*From Employee Information Bulletin, VA Center, Wood, Wisconsin.*

the

bookshelf

The feature is possible because of the cooperation of the U.S. Civil Service Commission. This bibliography on position classification and pay administration in the public service was prepared by the staff of the Commission's Library under the direction of Mrs. Elaine Woodruff, Librarian.

Selections are made on the basis of (1) general availability; (2) pertinence to the public service generally, and (3) recency of material.

POSITION CLASSIFICATION AND PAY ADMINISTRATION IN THE PUBLIC SERVICE

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Book Reviews

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Edited by George W. Taylor and Frank C. Pierson. McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, New York, 1957. 352 pp. \$6.50.

Reviewer

Bryant Kearney

*Assistant Director of Personnel
County of San Diego, California*

The Labor Relations Council of the Wharton School of Finance and Commerce, University of Pennsylvania, initiated a research in 1953 to evaluate the present state of wage theory. During the subsequent three years, twelve wage economists selected for this research project held a series of meetings. Through their deliberations they established, among other things, a frame of reference on wage theory which enabled them to prepare this volume of eleven original essays, which the reviewer believes to be the most scholarly integration of material he has ever been privileged to read.

The contributors, representatives of business, unions, and government, have been close observers of wage trends both in the United States and abroad. They conclude that wage theory should not be exclusively tied to general economic theory and reason that, in addition to general market forces, there are particular institutional forces accounting for the behavior of wages.

This is the first book to directly relate the principles of wage determination to major developments in the field of industrial relations and emphasis is placed on such considerations as the status of the firm, the force of customary comparisons, the consequences of a possible strike, the effects of job evaluation, the status of union organizations, the scope of collective bargaining in relation to the substantive wage determination, and the role of large-scale enterprise.

Even though the material relates the principles of wage determination to major developments in the field of industrial relations, those who are required to determine wages and wage structures for governmental agencies could profit no end by acquainting themselves with the concepts presented in this volume. Public agency technicians would, however, recognize that their decision-making in this area would both include and exclude some of the factors discussed in this book. Additionally, public agency personnel face such factors as legislative decisions, political pressures, and

new innovations over which their particular agency may have no control, and, conversely, they face a lack of such factors as profit and productivity improvements prevalent in the industrial world.

Although the reader will find little of the general wording of the material to be directly applicable to public agency wage setting problems, the basic principles underlying the concepts concluded by the contributors are equally valid in determining wages for tax-financed agencies. To be properly oriented for an involved discussion of wage theory one should have had an introduction to the various theories advanced by such economists as Adam Smith, Alfred Marshal, J. R. Hicks, A. C. Pigou, Paul H. Douglas, John Maynard Keynes, and J. B. Clark.

It takes more than a passing acquaintance with the terms and definitions used in the works of the above wage theorists to enable one to have enthusiastic interest and appreciation when reading the scholarly presentation of material found in this volume. For example, I quote:

Wage theory consists of two quite different branches: partial- and general-equilibrium analysis. Theorists customarily use partial analysis to explain the wage levels of individual firms or industries and, until recently, they have used the same framework to analyze the national wage level and labor's share in the national income. Today, the approach to wages in this latter area has been greatly altered by Keynesian general-equilibrium analysis, although many economists still use the traditional approach in explaining labor's income share.¹

The foundation of partial- and general-equilibrium wage analysis consists of three main elements: the concept of maximization, the method of static analysis and the conditions of equilibrium. . . .

The three postulates of stationary-equilibrium theory . . . when combined with the assumption that labor is bought and sold under conditions of pure competition, form the core of traditional wage theory. This view of the major forces controlling wage relationships, commonly referred to as the marginal-productivity theory, . . .

The preceding excerpts are not likely to mean much to the average small businessman who serves as city councilman or the average layman who accepts an appointment as city or county civil service commissioner. It might even be difficult reading for the average per-

¹ The term "general equilibrium" as used here refers to the Keynesian theory of national-income determination.

sonnel technician. The reader with a very limited background should probably first read Chapter 5, "The Task of Contemporary Wage Theory," by John T. Dunlop. This well prepared essay presents a succinct historical perspective which is highly desirable for an appraisal of the current state of wage theory.

The task of developing wage theory has not always been the same. Whatever period a wage theory may be, it can be interpreted as a product of:

- (1) the economic developments and quantities of the time and place, including the movements of wage rates; (2) the wage-setting institutions; (3) the dominant economic theory and intellectual fashions of the period; and (4) the policy issues of the day.

These four factors, though undoubtedly worded with only the industrial relations field in mind, are equally applicable as wage theory in setting wages for positions in agencies financed by means other than "profit."

Briefly, the heritage of wage theory can be divided into three broad periods, the first being the classical period² ending around 1870, in which the wage fund symbolized wage thinking; the second period, which more or less ended with the Great Depression of 1929, characterized by marginal productivity; and the third period is the contemporary one.

The questions that are posed for contemporary wage theory are quite different from those that challenged the wage fund and marginal-productivity doctrines. The analysis of wage determination in each doctrine was the very center of economics. As these earlier doctrines declined in usefulness and popularity, a tendency developed to treat wage rates as determined outside the system and as given for economic problems. Dunlop brings out that wage theory has shown a tendency to break down, particularly on the supply side.

Chapter 4 on "Wage Determination Processes" by George W. Taylor, presents a very interesting and informative contrast of the characteristics of collective bargaining as a wage determining institution, with alternative processes which have been and are still being utilized. Taylor's presentation provides the reader with a most informative explanation of the effects of the Wagner and Taft-Hartley Acts on wage determination in industry. Although these acts do not apply directly to wage determination in public agencies, they certainly have been a definite factor in this area in an indirect way, both by the change in ap-

proach to the problem and by the effect caused as an example of procedure.

Collective bargaining is essentially a system of wage determination in which the employer shares administrative decision-making responsibilities with the union which represents the worker. This system has provided a procedure which has been imitated to some degree in public agency wage setting. Examples of this practice are the agencies where representatives of the employees' associations, or committees selected by the employees, meet with the wage determining body to discuss what the wage rates should be for the next budget period.

Under collective bargaining, union representatives share with management in various ways the function of formulating and applying the employment terms. This practice does not prevail in the same manner in public employee-public agency relations, but the governmental employee can, if he rejects the employment terms offered by his agency, take the same summary action as the industrial employee who individually rejects newly negotiated terms—quit his job. Employees of public agencies, as their fellow counterparts in industry, occasionally combine their individual protests but their efforts are applied in a different manner from that used by industrial workers, who may use a wildcat strike. In the absence of collective bargaining, particularly in the manufacturing industries, the employer promulgates and applies policies respecting the conditions of employment in very much the same way as public agencies do as a part of the managerial function. Mr. Taylor summarizes:

To ignore the far-reaching effect of collective bargaining upon the substance of wage determination is to ignore problems which are among the most complex in the labor-management relationships.

The reviewer agrees with him and points out that this eventually may equally apply to wage determination in public agencies.

A major contribution of this volume is the attention given to wage rate relationships, i.e., wage structure as a useful concept for analysis to be found in E. Robert Livernash's "The Internal Wage Structure," Chapter 6, and Arthur M. Ross' "The External Wage Structure," Chapter 7. The material presented in these two chapters covers phases of wage determination of great interest to public personnel people. Of particular significance to wage and salary technicians is the data in Chapter 7 where the purpose is to explore the nature and the determinants of inter-plant, or external,

² The specifically English period in the history of our science, says Joseph A. Schumpeter in his "History of Economic Analysis."

wage relationships. It has presented the distinction between centripetal pressures, which pull separate decisions together in a system, and centrifugal pressures, which hold them apart. Ross points out:

Equitable comparison tends to make wages (and wage adjustments) equal, while differences in financial capacity tend to make them vary.

He also points out that although fringe benefits will become an increasing portion of total compensation, wages and fringes will probably remain subject to separate comparison.

In summary, the book emphasizes the latitudes often possessed by wage negotiators insofar as strictly market influences are concerned, the precise degree depending upon the particular environment. The average layman will probably profit little should he read this excellent series of essays on wage theory. However, technicians who participate in public agency wage determination owe it to themselves to read and study this volume. It constitutes an interpretation considerably modifying the traditional view of the entire field of wage economics.

BUREAUCRACY AND SOCIETY IN MODERN EGYPT; A STUDY OF THE HIGHER CIVIL SERVICE. By Morroe Berger. Princeton, New Jersey, Princeton University Press, 1957. 231 pages. \$4.75.

Reviewer

Margaret L. Franzen

International Cooperation Administration

Professor Morroe Berger, since 1952 the representative of sociology on the staff of Princeton's Special Program in Near Eastern Studies, through this book has made a valuable contribution to our scant knowledge of an important group in Egyptian society—the higher civil servant group. The research for the study resulting in this book was started by the author in 1953-54 when he was in the Near East under the auspices of the Princeton Special Program. The principal techniques used in the research were: (1) review of the history of the government of Egypt from the Arabic-Islamic conquest to modern times, and (2) the administration and subsequent analysis of a questionnaire the author designed to be given to 249 Egyptian higher civil servants.

The history of the Egyptian government service included in the book, though not exhaustive, helps us to understand present-day government procedures and attitudes of the people toward their government by highlight-

ing such traditions as strong central administration without delegation of authority and the nearly automatic entrance into government of almost all educated Egyptians.

The questionnaire, the heart of this treatise, was developed to get at the background, attitudes and opinions of the higher civil servant. It was administered, under the close supervision of Professor Berger, by Egyptian social workers who spent from one to one-and-one-half hours with each questionee.

In the analysis of the data from the questionnaire, Professor Berger set for himself two main tasks: (1) the comparison of the Egyptian bureaucracy with bureaucracies of western nations, and (2) the comparison of groups of Egyptian civil servants, e.g. the younger with the older; the administrator with the technician. To make the analysis meaningful the author selected in advance certain points which he considered to be general characteristics of bureaucracy and of professional behavior. He also devised a professional scale, a bureaucratic scale, an exposure-to-West scale and a job satisfaction index.

The findings resulting from the questionnaire analysis were not very surprising. Some findings of general interest are: the Egyptian higher civil servants are drawn to government service largely because of economic reasons; those with strong exposure to the West are more apt to be public service minded; the technicians are more professionalized than the administrators; memberships in associations are often considered as a means of self-protection; technicians are by and large more satisfied with their jobs than are administrative personnel.

The readers of this book are left with many questions about current developments in the Egyptian civil service. This is not to say that the study of Professor Berger was not complete within the bounds set but rather to indicate certain areas for further study. Thus, an analysis and review of Egyptian civil service organization and procedures resulting from the enactment of civil service legislation in 1952 is basic to an understanding of the current situation. A worthy contribution in this area is a thesis, **MAJOR PROBLEMS IN THE EGYPTIAN CIVIL SERVICE**, by Mr. Yousef Abdel-Wahab, an Egyptian Civil Service Commission employee. Unfortunately, this is only available in the American University Library. Another subject for study that probably would be difficult to do but which might prove to be very enlightening, is a public opinion survey of what the private citizen in Egypt thinks of government service.

BOOK AND PAMPHLET NOTES

THE GROWTH OF PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT IN GREAT BRITAIN. Moses Abramovitz and Vera F. Eliasberg. Princeton University Press, Princeton, New Jersey, 1957. 151 pp. \$3.75.

This book deals with the growth in Great Britain of the number of persons directly employed by government agencies. The authors survey nineteenth century developments then systematically trace the trends from 1891 to 1950, treating the data generally and then distinguishing employment at central and local levels and by functions. They also compare the experience of Great Britain with that of the United States. The value of the book is enhanced by the fact that the authors sketch in the intellectual, political, and economic context, and help to account for their findings by presenting tentative causal hypotheses. The book is a companion volume to "The Trend of Government Activity in the United States Since 1900" by Mr. Fabricant, published in 1952.

THE A.F. OF L. IN THE TIME OF GOMPERS. Philip Taft. Harper & Brothers, 49 East 33rd Street, New York 16, New York, 1957. 508 pp. \$6.75.

This history of the American Federation of Labor provides a penetrating perspective for many of the problems that confront the American labor movement today. Professor Taft examines the evolution of policy and programs within the Federation and seeks to describe the problems, conflicts, and activities of the A. F. of L. as an independent institution and as a spokesman for large numbers of the organized workers of the United States and Canada. The book should be both interesting and profitable reading for public personnel officials.

LEADERSHIP AND STRUCTURES OF PERSONAL INTERACTION. Ralph M. Stogdill. Bureau of Business Research, The Ohio State University, Columbus 10, Ohio, 1957. 90 pp. \$2.00.

The research reported in this monograph is concerned with two different approaches to the measurement of personal interrelations. In the first approach, sociometric methods are used to develop measures of working relations among the members of organizations. (Performances and interactions among superiors are found to exert some unpredicted effects upon interactions of subordinates.) The second approach relates the responsibility and authority of superiors to the responsibility and authority of subordinates. (Responsibility and authority relationships are found to differ in large and small organizations. The formalized interactions in large organizations appear to mitigate some of the tensions that arise in smaller organizations where responsibility and authority are subject to the test of informal face-to-face authentication.)

These studies were conducted in naval organizations, but the methods are applicable to business, governmental, and educational organizations.

TRAINING THE SUPERVISOR. L. David Korb. U.S. Civil Service Commission. Personnel Methods Series No. 4. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C., 1956. 126 pp. 40¢.

A handbook for the training officer or other official who has to plan, develop and carry through a supervisory training program and for those who are interested in improving the effectiveness of managerial personnel. The author discusses the following subjects: foundations of a good supervisory training program; how to ascertain training needs; how to construct a program on the basis of those needs; and how the agency evaluates the program both for its internal qualities and its effect upon supervision and the organization.

THIS IS YOUR MASSACHUSETTS GOVERNMENT. Elwyn E. Mariner. E. E. Mariner, Box 22, Arlington Heights 75, Massachusetts, 1956. \$1.75.

In the words of the author, who is Research Director of the Massachusetts Federation of Taxpayers, this book was "written for young people in Massachusetts who are going to school and who will soon BE the government; for people who live and work in Massachusetts and want to

know more about the organization and operation of their local government; and finally, for the assistance and encouragement of those good citizens who accept public office and wish a brief, nontechnical description of the organization and operations of the various agencies and officers with whom and through whom they must work."

The author has succeeded admirably in preparing a valuable source book for this audience. Just for example, the process of selecting jurors is described in detail, so also is the way motor vehicles are taxed, and the manner in which books can be obtained from the state library service. The book will also be useful, however, as a supplement to a general text on state and local government.

COMPLETE GUIDE TO CIVIL SERVICE JOBS. David R. Turner. Arco Publishing Company, 480 Lexington Avenue, New York 17, New York, 1957. \$1.50.

A listing of the jobs in the U.S. federal service and information on educational and experience requirements and where and how to apply for government positions. The book also contains information on such employment benefits as pensions, leave, etc.

personnel literature

abstracts of current articles

1957 PPA Abstracters

The following members of the Public Personnel Association have accepted the editor's invitation to serve as abstracters of articles for the "Personnel Literature" section of *Public Personnel Review* in 1957.

Fred R. Alleman, New Jersey State Department of Civil Service, Trenton, New Jersey (Retired)

Henry E. Allanson, Jr., Personnel Services Officer, U. S. Department of the Interior, Consolidated Services, Portland, Oregon

Harold N. Baxter, Personnel Technician, City Service Commission, Milwaukee, Wisconsin

Henry E. Hall, Senior Test Technician, Texas Merit System Council, Austin, Texas

Robert A. Earle, Personnel Director, Fort Lauderdale, Florida

H. F. Goss, Classification Officer, Civil Service Commission, Toronto, Ontario, Canada

Gardiner B. Parker, Personnel Director, Pensacola, Florida

Jane Pugh, Supervising Examiner, Civil Service Commission, Chicago, Illinois

Charles J. Setzer, Jr., Assistant Personnel Examiner, Bureau of Examinations, New York City Department of Personnel, New York, New York

William G. Waggoner, Employee Relations Officer, U. S. Bureau of Reclamation, Sacramento, California

Janet L. Ward, Personnel Technician II, Washington State Personnel Board, Seattle, Washington

John R. Wheatley, Wage and Classification Office, U. S. Naval Training Center, Great Lakes, Illinois

Mrs. Eve K. Williams, Payroll and Personnel, Department of Libraries, Miami, Florida

Administration

Policy Perspective: Management's Third Dimension. David S. Brown. *Personnel Journal*, November-December, 1956.

Today, teachers of administration tend to concentrate on management techniques and human relations to the near exclusion of all else. There is widespread belief in the magic of methods; and, the newer study of human relationships as an aid to management is becoming increasingly popular. Many of the ideas emanating from these fields are real contributions to management philosophy and practice. But if technical know-how, rounded out by attention to the needs of the individual is still not enough, what then is the missing ingredient of management? To find the answer one must begin by recognizing the need for management to operate in a meaningful context of values and purposes. This area, which overlaps both of the others, can be called policy perspectives, and represents the third dimension of management. The concept of management as the mindless right arm of policy is useless because it is not true to life. Management cannot help affecting policy. In government, a deterrent to recognition of policy perspectives as a significant element of administration has been—and is—fear of a politicalized civil service. The paradox is that consciousness of just how far political forces pervade a given program can help to keep management on the proper policy beam. Pertinent also to the individual's behavior in his organization is his sense of ethics and how it relates to objectives. A further element in the policy process is an awareness of what might be called institutional factors. Where does each agency, division, and unit fit into the total picture? What policy-conditioning forces are loosed by one organizational set-up as opposed to another? What are the pressures of the various publics involved? What are the informal groupings that influence action? Straight thinking about objectives is a simple matter of efficiency. Thus, there is a need to introduce an understanding of the policy element into any management curricu-

lum. Management does not exist in a vacuum. This is why a policy perspective is essential both to the understanding of, and meaningful participation in, the administrative process.

—JANET L. WARD.

Communication

Disclosure of Information: A Coin with Two Sides. Leonard M. Friedman. *Public Administration Review*, Winter, 1957.

Basic philosophy, relating to the disclosure of public information, is that the papers, files, and records in the hands of public agencies are available for public inspection and disclosure. This approach is still subject to two exceptions: cases where legislature has expressly prohibited disclosure (e.g. income tax returns) and cases where a vaguely defined concept called "public policy" imposes limitations to disclosure. The key questions in the disclosure of public information are: what information must be disclosed; must not be disclosed; and need not be disclosed.

Much of the misunderstanding surrounding problems of disclosure and non-disclosure of information may be attributed to the failure to distinguish between information that records the actions of public officers and that which, although collected for governmental purposes, reveals the personal affairs of private citizens. If the decision for or against disclosure is basically a decision of public policy, then the administrative officer should be guided by standards provided by the arbiter of public policy, the legislature. Well conceived statutory guides are needed rather than the present vague laws on public policy in the disclosure of information.

Newspapers tend to hide economic motivations in their seeking the disclosure of public information under a cloak of patriotic slogans, like "secrecy in government" and "the people's right to know." Why should the press insist on its right and duty to publish hearsay accusations or information of a personal nature submitted to the government and yet refuse publication of names of juvenile offenders? Is not this an insistence on the transfer of the selective function—call it censorship power if you will—out of the hands of government, which bears a legal responsibility to the public, and into the hands of the newspaper publisher who has no such responsibility?

Public officials should not be censors and usually they do not want to be. However, the outcry for disclosure is a coin with two sides. Secret government is one of the hallmarks of the super state. Another hallmark of totalita-

rianism is the complete subjection of the personal affairs of the private individual to the totality.—JOHN R. WHEATLEY.

Nepotism

Would You Hire Your Son? Perrin Stryker. *Fortune*, March, 1957.

The hiring of relatives is widespread in U.S. business. Recent surveys (*Fortune*) reveal 55% of 175 largest corporations have relatives in management. Executives attitudes range from tolerance to outright repudiation. Nepotism has four main types: (1) out-and-out nepotism—hiring relatives regardless of merit; (2) nepotism-plus-training—advancing up through the parent firm or subsidiary; (3) nepotism-plus-training-subject-to-company-veto—favouritism tempered with merit, and (4) vindicated-nepotism—often resulting from the other types, e.g. Henry Ford II's rejuvenation of Ford Motor Co.

"No relative" rules discriminate against competence; owner's sons can succeed, e.g., Krupp (Germany) and Firestone (U. S.). Two common conflicting opinions are: (1) nepotism is favouritism therefore it is improper and undemocratic, (2) nepotism is a human trait resulting from desirable family loyalties. By definition, nepotism is obviously unintelligent, particularly in the absence of strong hands protecting from incompetence. Alternatively, executives like to surround themselves with persons they know, like, and trust. Aggressive fathers may ease guilt feelings by rewarding neglected sons. The son may become a drifter, a passive conformist, or reliant upon group decisions. Smaller companies appear more susceptible. Policies vary but some companies find family names help business. Compatibility is a point for hiring relatives. Nepotism unless vindicated is not good for business, but, nepotism can be beneficial if controlled. Qualifications and merit must come first then other considerations such as family ties may be valuable in promoting successful business.—H. F. Goss.

Rating

The Friendship Factor in Peer Nominations. E. P. Hollander. *Personnel Psychology*, Winter, 1956.

Foremost among the objections raised against peer evaluation procedures is the contention that the ratings obtained are loaded with a friendship factor. This study deals directly with this issue by studying the influence of friendship ties on the validity obtained for peer

nominations. The sample consisted of 23 sections of approximately 30 officer candidates in a Naval Officer Candidate School. The program is of 16 weeks duration with an orientation week preceding actual training. Four sociometric forms of peer nominations were utilized as the measuring instruments. The forms called for nominations of peers in terms of future success as a naval officer, leadership qualities, interest and enthusiasm for Naval Service, and probable success in the officer training school. Friendship scores were derived by a simple summation of people choosing the subject. The groups were divided, half being told that the results of the ratings were strictly for research purposes, half being told that the results might affect future administrative decisions. Forms of the tests were administered three times: during the orientation week, during the third week, and during the sixth week.

The peer nomination forms showed split-half reliabilities (corrected by Spearman-Brown formula) of .90 during the orientation period, and changed little at later time levels, indicating that the first ratings were reliable. The friendship score reliabilities (corrected) vary from .50 during the orientation week to .66 at the 13th week. There was a slight tendency for persons rated high on the friendship scale to be rated high on the other scales, approximately two of the top five were "friends." Statistical evidence is presented to indicate that though popularity tends to be related to peer nomination scores, this does not fundamentally alter predictions. One of the intriguing suggestions is that perhaps this apparent favoring of friends reflects a desire to have as friends those who are already manifestly high in status. The evidence reveals no significant difference in the "research" as against the "administrative" groups.—HENRY E. HALL.

Recruitment

Staffing Democracy's Top Side. John A. Perkins. *Public Administration Review*, Winter, 1957.

If we are long to enjoy our self-governing republic, it must be well administered and the prime requisite of good administration is competent top level staff. However, our democratic-republican government is not so well staffed as it should be. One hypothesis as to why staffing our democracy is so difficult is that the economic system seems to work against the political system. This is increasingly the case. One hundred years ago, four out of five men were self-employed and could leave for periods of government service. Today, four out of five

work for someone else with security past forty dependent on continued service to one employer. Prosperity is a large factor in the scarcity of talent for government service. Talented manpower clings to the lucrative posts in private enterprise, and the successful farmer is not so available for public office as he once was. Two other factors are the premium placed on seniority by organized American labor, and fringe benefits, including vacation and pension rights, which increase with length of service. Both cause men to consider with care any change of jobs. With respect to top level positions, staffing the government is more a matter of quality than quantity. One partial solution to the dilemma of the staffing problem would be to lessen the gap between federal and private pay. In this respect the national government has not even kept abreast of more progressive cities and state governments, not to mention private employment. Salaries have to become so patently inadequate that the press and enlightened public opinion virtually demand that pay boosts be made. Narrowing the differences between public and private salaries might reduce the number of career executives who leave Washington for higher paying jobs in private employment. Unsatisfactory alternatives aside from less than adequate staffing are too great dependence (1) upon men retired or approaching retirement or (2) upon temporary appointees from education, industry, and labor. Both alternatives create great likelihood of conflict of interest charges. Existing conflict of interest statutes which require disposal of personal holdings discourage the entry of competent men into public life. The United States might exploit further the possibilities of non-monetary and nonmaterial satisfactions to attract capable men and women into the government. There is nothing in our official system permitting a civilian to work for honor instead of for cash. The Legion of Merit, offered during wartime, suggests that something similar be awarded in peacetime. Education might help through emphasizing citizenship clearing houses and programs of training for public administration. All universities and disciplines must inculcate in all students an awareness of the inescapably personal character of governmental responsibility in a democracy.

—HENRY E. ALLANSON, JR.

Training

The "Behind-the-Back" Way in Training Conference Leaders. B. J. Speroff. *Personnel Journal*, April, 1957.

Considerable attention is devoted to the

selection and development of conference leaders because of the increasing importance of companies' education and training activities. Conferences are generally of three types: informational, advisory, or problem solving. Leaders are judged by skilled observers who assess the entire conference objectively with the use of a special rating form or grade sheet or by pre-determined criterion. During the past few years a "behind-the-back" procedure has been used in psychotherapy sessions with clinical and hospital groups. The method operates as follows: An individual relates an experience, a problem, or a dream to the group with his back to the group. Group members examine and appraise the personal experiences without inhibitions to face-to-face situation. The freer discussion may prove of more value to individual and the group. A modified procedure is used to train conference leaders. The leader is given a card containing a cryptic statement of the problem situation. He is given one minute to study the situation and plan the strategy for the conduct of the conference. The group meanwhile is told roles they will play. The leader is allowed to conduct the conference any way he wants. After 15 minutes time is called, and he sits facing away from group. One by one the conferees make a brief comment as to his personal reactions to the conduct of the conference by the leader. The leader may make notes so as to explain his points later. After the group comments, the leader turns to group and gives his reactions followed by a general discussion. The results of this training method have been evaluated 3 months later. The leaders report that personal insight, empathic ability, and sensitivity to feelings of others have been developed and observers agree.—HAROLD N. BAXTER.

Internships for Public Service Training. James R. Watson. *State Government*, March, 1957.

A growing use of internship programs at various levels of government is reflected by a recent survey made by the National Civil Service League. As the concept of job qualifications shifts and a prospective employee is not required to possess all necessary training and experience for the immediate job, but rather a broad background of aptitude and education, governmental agencies must be prepared to recruit promising people and to develop their specific skills through subsequent training. More administrators are realizing that unique advantages can be gained by the use of work-study programs, even though such programs demand and are heavily dependent

upon positive attitudes and leadership of top management.

While working under the supervision of many experienced employees, the trainee gains new insight and skill in administration. Internships introduce the college graduate to the work situation, bridging the gap between school and career, or represent an extension of education whereby persons whose primary affiliation is with a school or research organization may gain practical experience in government. A valuable meeting ground is provided for governmental administrators and the representatives of co-sponsoring research or educational organizations. It was found that interns must be carefully selected and directed if they are to make progress during the internship period.

Although relatively new, such programs were found to be in operation in thirteen states as well as some counties and cities and have already attracted many outstanding individuals to government service.—JANE PUGH.

Orientation and Training in Government for Work Overseas. Edward T. Hall. *Human Organization*, Spring, 1956.

The initial efforts of anthropologists to assist in the orientation and training of personnel of the Technical Cooperation Authority (Point IV program) for overseas work have been far from successful. Despite the generally agreed upon theoretical need for the anthropologist to assist in the training of personnel for extensive contacts with new cultural systems, he did not seem to fit into a practical training program aimed at a specific objective. Many of the reasons for this lack of success are recognizable as traditional problems that many a government training program has to contend with in selling itself to the top administration: lack of knowledge of training objectives or methods; the realization that training costs money; the low priority on training in an agency that is under great pressure to "produce" quickly; and the resentment of vested interests to the new arrival on the training scene. However, the major reason for the anthropologist's lack of success was that a majority of the administrators within the TCA and the State Department seldom saw any relationship between the apparently academic subject matter of anthropology and the practical problem of giving technical aid to the backward areas of the world. The most frequent complaint was that there was insufficient specific training material available. A careful consideration of the history of this problem has led to the formulation of several desirable

training principles that should serve as a guide for the theoretician or academician who finds himself confronted with a similar training problem. Training for culture contact work should be explicit, and should not compete with other programs. Training should be in terms of situations which the trainees would most commonly meet, or would have to master in their work. Training for service in different countries, therefore, should be different. Also, the agriculturist should receive different training than the health officials, even though both should receive a certain amount of training that is based upon common cultural situations. Lectures on history, political structure, and government should be given by qualified nationals and later examined for their local imagery, interpretation, and as examples of how the national culture operates. In this manner the anthropologist will be able to meet the major objection to his performance as a trainer in foreign assistance programs, and complaints about lack of specificity may reasonably be expected to disappear quickly.

—CHARLES J. SETZER.

How West Point Develops Leaders. Patrick Kimball. *Personnel Journal*, February, 1957.

The service academies of the United States are the only universities, to my knowledge, which specialize in training men for positions of management. They teach leadership in the armed forces, which is management in the civilian sense, and they develop leaders. Perhaps the most significant lesson in leadership concerns the art of communication. Considering that all officers are obliged to teach, the U. S. Military Academy adopted instructor training as a part of its program. The cadet learns to get through to people of varying intelligence, talking neither down to them nor over their heads. The study of military history at U.S.M.A. provides a knowledge of the de-

velopment of arms and armies. But far more important, it interests cadets in what makes great leaders. Dwight D. Eisenhower, as chief of staff after World War II, directed that a course in military psychology and leadership be included in the curriculum. He stated that he believed that the principles of leadership which were developed through experience in the war should properly be a subject of formal study by prospective regular officers. The United States Corps of Cadets is a separate military organization in the U. S. Army, consisting entirely of the cadet companies at West Point. Cadet officers actually administrate the organization in accordance with army regulations. The purpose, of course, is to give upper classmen as much experience as possible in leadership. Positions are rotated among the first class to give each cadet an opportunity to act as a leader. Each class receives instruction in tactics, advancing in complexity each year. The situation method of application is used wherein actual combat situations are described with the aid of charts, sand tables, and models. Cadets are then called upon to make decisions as the combat leader as the action progresses. Besides its merit as a good instruction technique, the situation method gets cadets used to analyzing combat problems and making decisions rapidly. A leader must first accept discipline in order to establish it among his subordinates. And a leader must be able to control himself. The disciplinary system at West Point is designed to teach self control. Most of West Point's graduates turn out well because most of them were good men to start with. West Point molds good leaders; it does not manufacture them. I am not suggesting that its methods are in any way directly transferable to the training of civilian managers. Some of the results which it achieves, however, are the same characteristics which make an effective leader in any activity.

—ROBERT A. EARLE.

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EMPLOYEE EVALUATION:

A Review of Current Methods and a Suggested New Approach

By ROBERT J. BATSON, Assistant Professor, Western Michigan University

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How can public officials improve the process of employee evaluation? Can personnel officials and administrators discover fresh, simple, workable ways to solve the perennial problem of rating employees satisfactorily? How can present evaluation systems be overhauled? What are the elements of a sound philosophy of employee evaluation? These questions—and many of a similar nature—are explored in this report.

The author does not provide a packaged panacea or a ready-made administrative gadget. He re-directs attention to the objectives of employee evaluation, lest the systems themselves obscure these objectives. He describes the major systems in vogue. He marshals the criticisms of personnel practitioners whose first-hand experience gives weight to their views. And he concludes with a case for a fresh approach to employee evaluation through a system having limited, but clearly defined goals.

THE PLACEMENT INTERVIEW

By PHILIP E. HAGERTY, Assistant Director, Division of Examinations, New York State Department of Civil Service

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The placement interview is the last step in the employment process. Its purpose is to assess such personal qualities as tact, judgment, and personality since these attributes cannot be measured by written tests and experience records only. Decisions made after an interview are necessarily subjective. It is important, therefore, that interviewers clearly understand what objectives they should seek and that they gain skill in the techniques that will elicit clear and pertinent information.

The author discusses the purposes of the placement interview and explains the various approaches the interviewer should take when he talks with applicants.

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